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HAMMOND'S NEW

HISTORICAL ATLAS

FOR STUDENTS

A Series of 65 Plates, containing 154 Coloured Maps and Diagrams, with an Introduction illustrated by 43 Maps and Plans in black and white.

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PREFACE.

THE study of Modern History, whether English, European, American or Colonial, has long been handicapped in England by the non-existence of a carefully produced historical atlas, covering the whole ground and issued at a price which will place it within the reach of all students. This gap the present work endeavours to fill. No pains have been spared to achieve this end, and every map has been specially drawn and specially engraved.

It is claimed that this work is distinguished from other historical Atlases, whether English or foreign, by several features.

(1) In the first place, great emphasis is throughout placed upon the *physical basis* of historical geography. Not only are mountain hachures inserted on all politically coloured maps of sufficiently large scale, but a series of physical maps has been included, carefully designed so as to show the build of all the principal areas of historical importance. The periods illustrated by these maps are those in which the political divisions were sufficiently simple to be adequately shown by red lines. These physical maps have been placed in proximity to groups of other maps of the same area, and it is hoped that in this way the influence of the build of a country upon its history will be more easily made manifest to the student.

(2) As nothing tends to make a map more confusing, and therefore less instructive to the student, than a multiplicity of names, great care has been taken to insert only those names which are likely to be useful to the student at the period dealt with. The Editor has generally thought it better to risk including too few rather than too many names.

(3) As the Atlas is intended to be used by citizens of the greatest colonising nation in history, special attention has been devoted to Indian, American, and Colonial history, and it is believed that no atlas of general history contains so careful and full a treatment of these subjects as will be found in the fourth section of this book. The series of maps showing the progress in exploration and settlement of the extra-European world will, it is hoped, prove both instructive and stimulating to the imagination.

(4) At the same time the United Kingdom has received especially full treatment, and some of the maps contained in the book deal with aspects of English History which have never been treated in the same way in similar works.

(5) The Introduction contains a series of comments upon each of the maps in turn, which it is hoped will be of assistance to the teacher. These comments have especially aimed at bringing out the influence of geography upon history, or the reasons for the rapid changes in political geography which have especially marked certain periods of the world's history. While, of course, the Introduction makes no pretence to present a summary of universal history, it is

believed that the student who will study the maps in conjunction with the Introduction, will obtain a sound and comprehensive view, not, indeed, of the development of civilisation or the progress of political organisation (for which maps are almost useless), but, at any rate, of the stages and (so far as they were geographical) the causes whereby the present political distribution of the world has been brought about. A number of supplementary sketch maps, illustrating special points, have been inserted in the Introduction, together with a selection of battle-plans. In the difficult task of selecting the battles to be thus illustrated, the Editor has been chiefly guided by the needs of teaching. It is hoped that those which have been chosen include all or nearly all those which the majority of English teachers are accustomed to treat in detail.

A selection of the maps contained in this book has already been issued for the use of schools, at so low a price as to make it easily accessible to all schools. But in the nature of things it was not possible to make this selection illustrate in an adequate way the whole subject; and it is believed that teachers and serious students will prefer the present edition, which, unlike its predecessor, is equipped with a full Index. Of the 65 plates included in this edition, 43 are identical with plates in the smaller edition; 15 plates containing 35 maps are wholly new; 7 have been re-arranged and contain seven additional maps not inserted in the smaller edition. The Introduction has been greatly enlarged, and contains 14 maps and plans not published in the smaller edition.

It is the hope of the Editor and Publishers that this Atlas will form a real aid in the study and teaching of history. But as no book can hope to attain perfection at its first putting forth, they will be genuinely grateful to all users of the Atlas who will direct their attention to the mistakes of omission or commission which, despite their care, are sure to exist, or who will help them with suggestions for its improvement in a later edition.

In view of the vastness of its range, it is obvious that the Atlas does not and cannot claim to be based upon original research at more than a few points. The Editor's object has been to select and adapt for teaching purposes the best results of modern scholarship in this field, and he has drawn largely upon all the standard historical Atlases of England, France, Germany, and America, especially those of Schrader, Droysen, Sprüner-Menke and Poole, as well as upon books and monographs far too numerous to be named here. He has profited also by the advice and counsel of many friends. But beyond all other debts is that which he owes to Mr. George Philip, F.R.G.S., who has placed all his cartographical skill unstintingly at his command, and without whose patience, ingenuity and knowledge the atlas would probably never have been compiled. Mr. Philip has been good enough to contribute the admirable series of maps of the world showing the progress of exploration and settlement, which will be found to be one of the most valuable features of the book.

Liverpool, June, 1911.

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INTRODUCTION.

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INTRODUCTION

NOTE.—*Throughout this Introduction references to the coloured plates are given in Arabic numerals, thus, Plate* 1, 2, 3, *with the addition of letters, a, b, c, where there are more than one map on the same plate. References to the maps engraved in the text are given in Roman numerals, thus Fig.* I., II., III.

SECTION I.—GENERAL MAPS OF EUROPE. PLATES 1–13.

This series of maps shows the general development of Europe and the broad changes of its political distribution.

Europe on the Eve of the Barbarian Irruptions, c. 395 A.D. (Plate 1).—The first map shows the Roman Empire on the eve of its downfall, together with part of its eastern rival, the Persian Empire, and the barbarian tribes beyond. The red line may be said to mark the limits of the civilised world. Only a rough indication of the administrative divisions of the Empire is given, owing to the small scale of the map. The Empire was divided into four great *prefectures* which were subdivided into *dioceses*, and these again into *provinces*. The names of the dioceses of 395 are shown in large capitals. They were grouped into prefectures as follows: I. *Gaul:* Britannia, Gallia, Hispania (with Western Mauretania). II. *Italy:* Italia, Illyricum, Africa. III. *Macedonia:* Dacia, Macedonia. IV. *The East:* Thracia, Asia, Pontus, Syria (with Mesopotamia and Cilicia), Aegyptus. For further detail see the "Oxford Historical Atlas," Plate I. The broad physical features brought out in the map help to explain the course of events. (i.) The Carpathians would, obviously, have formed the best natural frontier for the Empire, but this had been lost when Dacia (mod. Hungary) was abandoned owing to the attacks of the barbarians, c. 255 A.D. The Empire was thus left without a good natural frontier towards the north, except on the line of the Alps. (ii.) The weakest spots on the northern frontier, and therefore the chief seats of Roman armies, were (*a*) the Rhine, soon to be attacked by the Franks, Allemanni and Suevi, Burgundians and Vandals; (*b*) the lower Danube, especially exposed to the Visigoths, Ostrogoths and other East-German tribes; (*c*) the low eastern shore of Britain and northern shore of Gaul, exposed to the piratical raids of the North Sea tribes. (iii.) The strong strategic position of Constantinople should be noticed. It is so placed as to protect Asia Minor, Syria and Egypt from invaders coming from the north. Those invaders who crossed the Danube, therefore, successively passed on through Illyricum to Italy and the West; and during the period of the Germanic invasions the eastern part of the Empire was, in comparison with the west, left almost intact. Protected on the east and south by the deserts of Syria, Arabia and Africa, it seemed to be endangered only in Mesopotamia, where the close neighbourhood of the Persian Empire gave rise to intermittent war.

Europe during the Barbarian Migrations (Plates 2 and 3).—The maps on these plates show four stages in the settlement of the barbarians within the western half of the Empire. These maps should be used in conjunction with **Plates 1, 4 and 5.**

2 (*a*). Driven forward by the Huns, the Visigoths crossed the Danube into the Balkan Peninsula and thence through Illyricum into Italy, where they sacked Rome. Thence, with a commission from the Emperor, they passed into southern Gaul and Spain. Meanwhile the Burgundians, crossing the Rhine, had settled in S.E. Gaul, whence they were never dislodged; and the Vandals and Suevi coming by the same route, overran Spain, where the Visigoths found them. The Suevi were penned into N.W. Spain, while the Vandals were driven over the Straits of Gibraltar into the Roman province of Africa, where they founded a kingdom controlling the Western Mediterranean. In the north of Gaul, the numerous tribes of the Franks occupied the valleys of the Scheldt and Moselle, and by 450 only the valley of the Seine remained Roman. The sudden collapse of the Roman power in the western provinces necessitated the withdrawal of Roman armies from Britain, whose south-east coast now began to be settled by pagan Saxons and Angles. As yet no barbarian nation had settled in Italy, but the feeble Emperor of the West, who nominally ruled from Ravenna, was dependent for his existence upon a barbarian army. In 476 A.D., Odoacer, then general of this army, suppressed the Western Empire, and established a kingdom in Italy, owing nominal allegiance to the Emperor at Constantinople. Thus the whole of the Western Empire, except the Seine valley, had passed into the hands of the German barbarians by 476.

2 (*b*). Meanwhile, the Ostrogoths had followed the Visigoths over the Danube, and after being settled for a time in Illyricum, passed under Theodoric into Italy, where they overthrew Odoacer (493) and established a powerful and well-governed, though short-lived empire, which in the first years of the sixth century was the most formidable power of the West. Its chief rival was the growing power of the Franks. Their divided tribes were united under Clovis (481–511), who subdued the Roman district in N. Gaul (486), reduced the Allemanni to submission (495–6), and conquered the great province of Aquitaine from the Visigoths (507). Thus by about 520 five principal barbarian states divided the western half of the Roman Empire between them: the Ostrogoths, the Franks, the Visigoths, the Vandals, and the Burgundians.

3 (*a*). Of these, however, only the Frankish and Burgundian kingdoms were to survive. During the next two centuries the other three all disappeared from the map. The Eastern Empire, showing a new vigour under Justinian (528–565), destroyed the Vandal kingdom in Africa (533–4) and the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy (535–552), and these countries became again part of the Empire. But the Empire was not strong enough to maintain these conquests. The Mongolian Avars occupied the country north of the Danube (c. 570), finally settling in modern Hungary, and constantly attacked the Empire. The Slavonic tribes had taken the place of the Germans who had fallen upon the Empire, and now occupied the plains as far west as the Elbe, together with Bohemia and Illyricum; they also pressed into the Balkan peninsula (c. 590), of which they

gradually occupied the greater part. The Lombards, a German tribe, pressed down into Italy (568), and though they were never able to conquer it entirely, reduced it to confusion (*see* **Plate 16**). At a later date, the Mongol tribe of Bulgarians also crossed the Danube and established a state in the region of modern Bulgaria (679).

3 (*b*). In addition to the attacks of these tribes, the Eastern Empire had to wage constant wars against the Persians. Hitherto it had kept its Asiatic and African lands intact. In the seventh century it was for the first time threatened also from the South, where the Arabs, united by the preaching of Mohammed, simultaneously attacked the East-Roman and the Persian Empires, subjugated the latter completely, and tore from the former the great provinces of Syria (634) and Egypt (640). During the next century the Saracens or Arabs extended their Empire eastwards almost to the Indus (*see* **Plate 5**), and westwards along the north coast of Africa to Spain, where they destroyed the Visigothic kingdom (711), leaving only a few tiny independent Christian states among the mountains of N. Spain, and pressed onwards into Gaul. Here they came in conflict with the Franks. The Frankish Empire was still the greatest of the Western Powers, but during the seventh century it had been deeply disorganised and divided, and if it had not been reunited under the vigorous Carolingian line, it would have fallen before the Saracens. Their advance was stopped at Tours (732), and the fortunes of the Western World were thus left to rest upon the Franks.

The Western World in the Age of Charlemagne (Plates 4 and 5). These two plates, drawn to the same scale, form a single map and illustrate the three great powers which, at the beginning of the ninth century divided the Western World between them. I. The Frankish Empire under Charlemagne included, with the exception of England, the whole of the lands occupied by the Germans within and without the ancient limits of the Empire, and almost the whole of Latin Christendom. Charlemagne's task was two-fold; (*a*) to bring all the German lands under one rule; this he did by the conquest of the Saxons (775–85), the effective subjugation of the semi-independent Bavarians (788), and the conquest of the Lombard Kingdom in Italy (774); (*b*) to extend the frontiers of Christendom; this he did by winning the Spanish March from the Saracens, thus beginning the advance of the Christian powers in Spain (785); by beating back the Mongolian Avars (796–9), and by setting up a series of border provinces against the Slavonic tribes, thus beginning the slow process of German advance eastwards. In effect, however, the limit of the German lands at the end of his reign was the Elbe. The Slavonic tribes were still to give much trouble under Charlemagne's weaker successors; the Mongolian Magyars (who replaced the Avars in Hungary, c. 900) were to give more; and the unsubdued and still pagan Scandinavians most of all, plundering and ravaging all the coast-line from the Elbe southwards, on both sides of the North Sea. Nevertheless, Charlemagne's Empire gave a real basis of unity to the nascent civilisation of the Germanised west, and this was recognised by the revival of the Western Roman Empire in his person, 800 A.D. II. The Eastern Empire was now much reduced in extent. In

the west it held only the islands and some patches of the Italian coast; in the Balkan Peninsula the Slavs and the Bulgarians had deprived it of all the upland country, leaving only Thrace and some coastal strips, and its main strength rested upon the solid block of Asia Minor. III. The Saracen Empire was now at the height of its civilisation. But it was already broken into two parts, Spain under the Ommeyads constituting a separate caliphate since 750; and though the Saracens were at intervals dangerous in Italy and the Western Mediterranean, they no longer threatened Europe as a whole. During the ninth and tenth century the vast Empire of the Saracens rapidly broke into fragments.

4*a* shows the division of Charlemagne's Empire among his grandsons by the Partition of Verdun (843), which is the beginning of the demarcation of modern France, Germany and Italy. Between France and Germany lies a long and rambling territory held, along with Italy, by the Emperor Lothar. This region consists of two parts: (*a*) The old kingdom of Burgundy, from which, however, the N.W. part (compare **Plate 2***b*) was cut off; this segment remained throughout modern history part of the kingdom of France under the name of the Duchy of Burgundy; (*b*) the valleys of the Meuse and Moselle, called (after the Emperor) Lotharingia (mod. Lorraine), and including the first conquests of the Franks and their capital, Aix-la-Chapelle. The modern history of Western Europe is largely concerned with the struggle between France and Germany for the control of Lotharingia and the kingdom of Burgundy, and the student will find it profitable to trace the fortunes of these territories throughout the series of maps.

4*b* shows the extent of the Frankish Empire in the later Merovingian period, before the rise of the Carolingians. No attempt is made to indicate the frequent and changing divisions of these lands among the princes of the Merovingian period, because they exercised no permanent influence. The chief point to note is the growing contrast between the two regions, Neustria and Austrasia, in which the Franks themselves had chiefly settled. Neustria, mainly settled by the Salian Franks from whom the Merovingian line came, had been more purely Roman, and rapidly imposed its Latin speech upon its conquerors; it is the true Francia (cf. **Plate 14**). Austrasia, mainly settled by the Ripuarian Franks, remained in effective contact with the German lands, and maintained its German speech. It was to provide the new ruling line of the Carolingians.

Europe at the Time of the First Crusade, c. 1100 (Plate 6).—At the end of the eleventh century, the great racial movements affecting Western Europe were practically at an end, though there were still to be movements of eastern tribes affecting Western Asia and the plains of Russia. The main features of the racial distribution of Western Europe at this period are shown in Fig. I. The last great movement in the West was that of the Northmen, who had by 911 established the powerful Duchy of Normandy, whence England was conquered in 1066, while the Norman power was also planted in S. Italy and Sicily (Duchy of Apulia and County of Sicily) during the eleventh century (**Plate 17***a*). These Normans, who breathed new life into every community which they entered, also guided the beginning

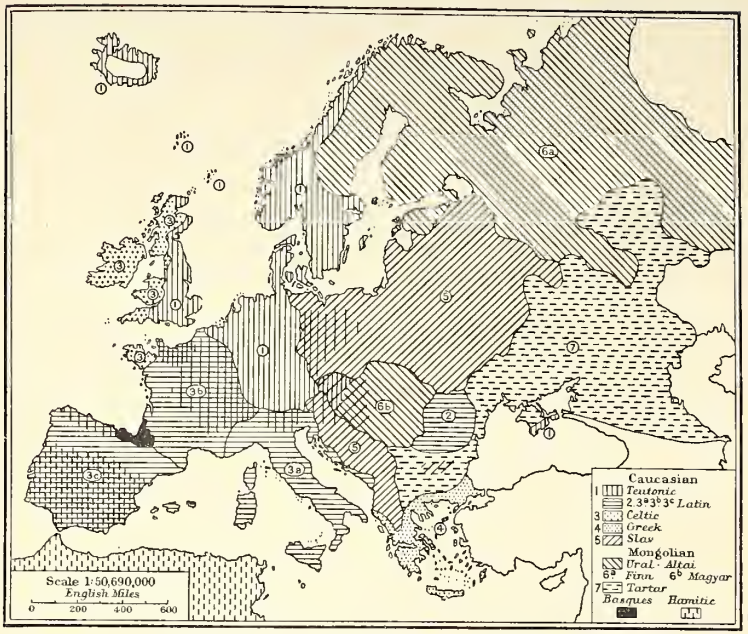


FIG. I.—RACES OF EUROPE, C. 1100 A.D.

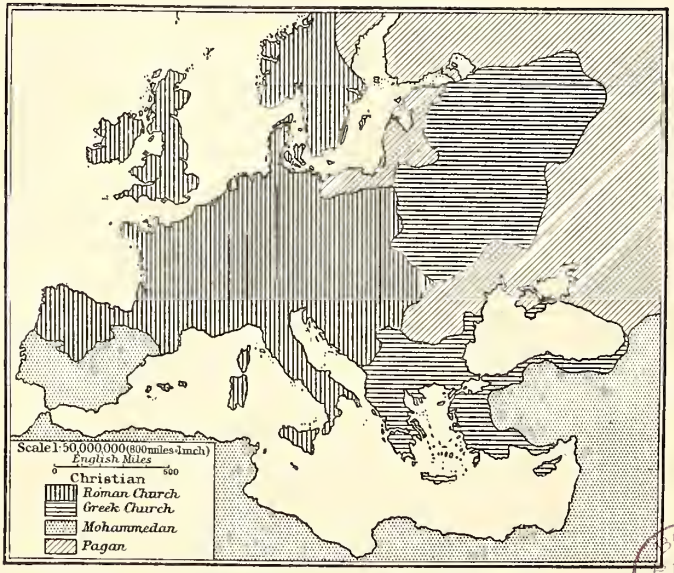


FIG. II.—RELIGIONS OF EUROPE, C. 1100 A.D.

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of the organised Russian states which had arisen since the invasion of Rurik and his Varangians (862), with their chief centres at Novgorod and Kief. During the centuries since Charlemagne, Christianity had also spread with great rapidity ; those of the Northmen who remained in their original homes had been converted, as had also most of the Slavonic tribes, notably the Poles, who had begun to form themselves into an organised state like those of the west, constantly at strife with Germany. The Magyars, or Hungarians, also had accepted Latin Christianity ; while the Greek form of Christianity had spread over the Balkan Peninsula and been adopted in Russia. The only important region which remained pagan was the southern and eastern border of the Baltic, including especially the (Slavonic) Prussians and the Lithuanians. The religious divisions of Europe at this period and generally throughout the Middle Ages are shown in Fig. II. The dominant power in Europe during this period was the kingdom of Germany (*see* **Plate 22**), which, under the kings of the Saxon and Franconian lines (918–1125), had not only welded together the four great nation-duchies of Germany (Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, Bavaria), but had united Lotharingia to Germany, assumed the Lombard crown in Italy (962), annexed the kingdom of Burgundy (1033), and compelled the Slavonic kingdoms of Bohemia and (at intervals) Poland to recognise their dependence. This pre-eminence of the German Kingdom was recognised by the revival of the name of the Roman Empire ; from 962 the Holy Roman Empire was always held by the German king for the time being. From the beginning, however, the Empire was always limited in effect to the three kingdoms of Germany, Burgundy and Italy. Among the other European states there was at this date no rival to the Empire. France was broken up into great feudal states (*see* **Plate 14**), and several of these were more powerful than the king, who held direct sway only over a very limited territory. In Spain a series of small Christian states had begun to make progress against the Saracens, whose unity had vanished (*see* **Plate 18***c*). Not only had the Saracen power broken up in Spain, in Egypt a separate caliphate had been established by the Fatimites (973), while in the east the Seljuk Turks from Central Asia had made themselves masters of the greater part of the caliphate, except where (as in Syria) a number of small feudal emirates existed. In 1071, the Seljuk Turks defeated the Eastern Emperor at Manzikert and conquered the greater part of Asia Minor. It was this dangerous advance, together with the conquest of Jerusalem and the Syrian coast by the Turks from the comparatively tolerant Fatimite caliphs of Cairo, which brought about the First Crusade. The Eastern Empire, deprived of Asia Minor, could scarcely have survived, had it not previously (1013) subjugated the Bulgarians and many of the Slavonic tribes, and thus gained effective control over the Balkan Peninsula.

Europe, c. 1360 (Plate 7).—This plate shows Europe in the later Middle Ages, when the Empire had broken into fragments, and France had already taken its place as the leading European state. In 1356, by the Golden Bull, the division of Germany into numerous practically independent states was recognised, and its constitution, as a loose federation under the presidency of the Emperor was fixed. Henceforward the chief interest in the history of Germany consists in the rivalry of the great princely families.

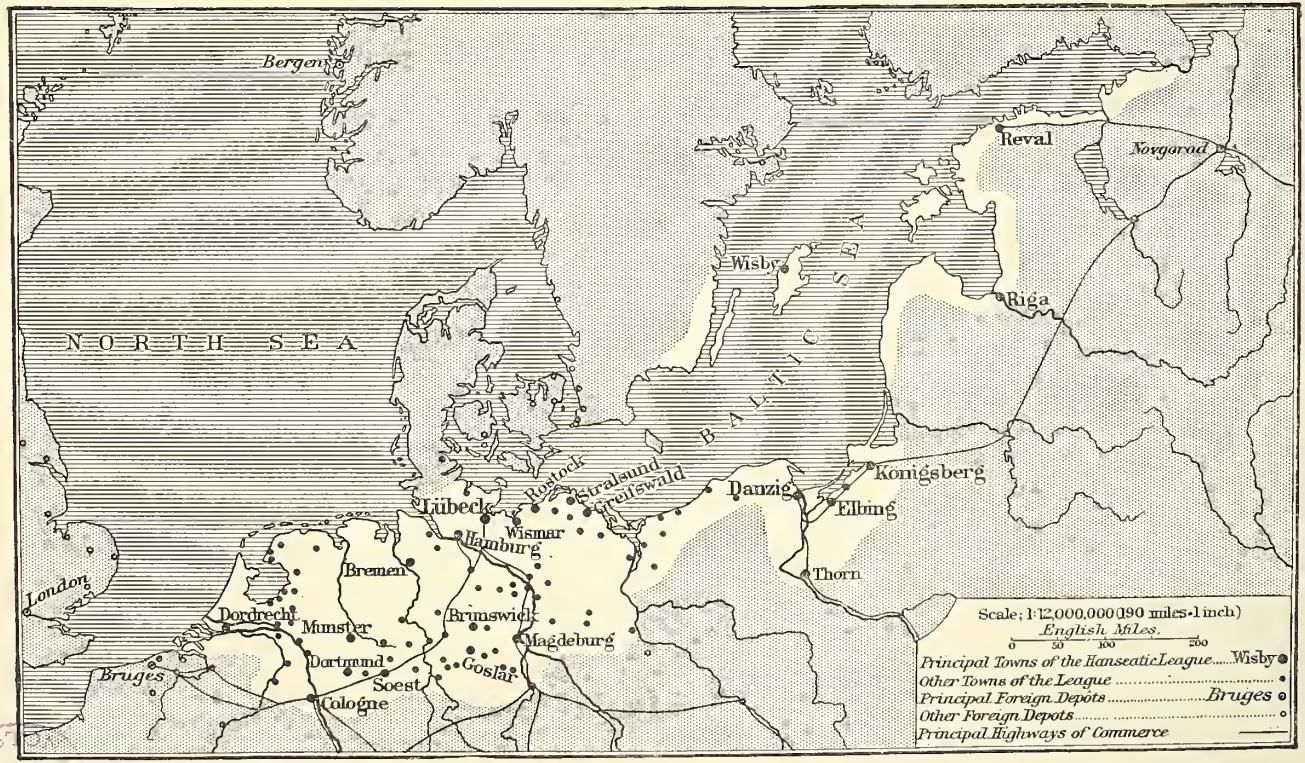


FIG. III.—THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE.

The area left white was commercially controlled by the League.

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The territories held by the two chief of these at this period, the houses of Habsburg and Luxemburg, are shown on the map; for the princely States of Germany at a later date, *see* **Plate 23***b*. The disunion of Germany during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries had also encouraged the rise of the Swiss Confederation, which had established its independence by 1358 (*see* **Plate 21***a*); while the inability of the Emperor to protect trade led to the rise of the Hanseatic League, which in 1368 included 77 towns. The area covered by the activities of the League, together with its chief members and foreign depôts, are shown in Fig. III. France had already begun to eat into the kingdom of Burgundy, having acquired Dauphiné in 1349, while Provence, though not held by the French king, was in the possession of a branch of the French royal line (House of Anjou) (**Plate 15***a*). The Angevin House had also acquired the great kingdom of Hungary (1342), and the Norman kingdom of Naples (1268), which had been held by princes of the Hohenstauffen line from 1194 to 1268. Sicily, formerly a part of the same kingdom, had revolted from the House of Anjou, and since 1282 had been ruled by an Aragonese prince. The rest of Italy was divided into many small states, republican or despotic, the chief of these being Milan, under the Visconti; while Venice and Genoa had acquired widely scattered territories in the Eastern Mediterranean, and had become independent states of the first importance. While, however, Germany was paying the penalty of its disorganisation at home and in Italy, on the north and east it had made considerable advances, having conquered and largely settled the Baltic shore from the Elbe almost to the Vistula, while German language and customs were increasingly winning ascendancy in Brandenburg, Lusatia, Silesia, and other lands east of the Elbe. Two German military orders, the Teutonic Knights and the Knights of the Sword, had conquered for Christendom the pagan districts of Prussia, Livonia and Esthonia (since 1226), though they were soon to be reduced to dependence by the growing power of Poland. In the west, France had become a great and powerful state; she had been compelled to accept defeat from the English in the first part of the Hundred Years' War, and to cede large territories in the south to England (1360), (**Plate 36***a*), but these were soon to be regained, and France and England were now the leading states of the West. In Spain the little states had been consolidated into four, and the Moors had been penned into a strip of territory in the extreme south (*see* **Plate 18***d*). The kingdoms of Castile and of Aragon (which held also the Western Mediterranean islands) had become European powers of the second, if not of the first, rank. The greatest changes on the map since the date of the previous map are those in Eastern Europe and Asia. The Fourth Crusade (1204), diverted by the greed of the Venetians, had been turned against the Eastern Empire, and for a short time (1204–61) Constantinople had been the seat of a Latin Empire (*see* **Plate 29***b*). After the Greek Empire was restored at Constantinople, petty Latin states still occupied Greece proper, while Venice, Genoa and the Knights of St. John held many of the islands. The Eastern Empire had thus been reduced to impotence. In the Balkan Peninsula a great Servian Empire had been established, though it broke up on the death of King Stephen Dushan in 1355; meanwhile, in 1291, the last relics of the Latin states in Syria, created

by the First Crusade (**Plate 29***c*), had been destroyed by the fall of Acre. Only the deep divisions of the Mohammedan and Turkish powers had enabled the Christian states of the East to survive so long. But in the first half of the fourteenth century a new and more vigorous power appeared in the Ottoman Turks, so called from their leader Othman. They had by 1360 conquered all the lands of the Empire in N.E. Asia Minor, as well as Gallipoli on the European side of the Dardanelles, and in the next year, 1361, were to conquer the territory immediately behind Constantinople and threaten its extinction (**Plate 25***b*). The final fall of the Eastern Empire was already inevitable, and was delayed only by the attack of Timur the Tartar, weakening the Turks (Battle of Angora, 1402). For the Empire of Timur, *see* **Plate 59.** Further north, a Tartar invasion of Russia (the Golden Horde) had reduced the rising Russian states to subjection (1241), not to be shaken off till the fifteenth century, and had left the Russians powerless to resist the rapid rise of the new Slavonic state of Lithuania, soon to be united with Poland.

Europe in 1519 (Plate 8).—At the opening of the modern age, and on the eve of the Reformation and the long strife to which it gave rise, the main feature of the map is the appearance of great consolidated states in the West and East of Europe. France (*see* **Plate 15***b*) had expelled the English (except from Calais), subjugated the last of the great feudatories, and taken another large bite out of the old kingdom of Burgundy by the acquisition of Provence (1481). Spain had been unified by the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile (1479), the conquest of Granada (1492), and the conquest of Navarre (1512). Poland had become, in extent of territory, a power of the first rank by its union with Lithuania. The Ottoman Turks had subjugated the whole of the Balkan peninsula, conquered Constantinople (1453) and were on the eve of still further advances (*see* **Plate 25***b*). The Scandinavian powers had been united since 1397 in the Union of Calmar; but this union was already threatening to break up; it was dissolved when Sweden declared its independence in 1523. In the midst of these great consolidated states lay the disintegrated countries of Germany and Italy, which were for this reason the main fields of the continual wars of this age. In Italy (*cf* **Plate 17***c*), which had been the scene of strife since 1494, the most important native power was that of Venice, which had acquired a large territory on the mainland in the second half of the fifteenth century; both France and Spain had obtained a foothold in Italy, in Milan and Naples respectively. In Germany, the chief states were those of Austria, Saxony, Brandenburg and Bavaria; but there were also some 300 independent smaller states. Note the extent of territory owned and ruled by Churchmen on the eve of the Reformation (coloured blue). But the most striking feature of the map at this date is the emergence of a wide and scattered Empire which seemed likely in 1519 to subjugate the two divided countries of Germany and Italy, and adding their resources to those of Spain, to leave France and the other powers helpless. This was the Empire of Charles V, coloured light yellow on the map. He inherited from his grandmother, Isabella—Castile; from his grandfather, Ferdinand—Aragon, Sardinia,

Naples and Sicily; from his grandmother, Mary of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Bold, what remained of the Burgundian power—the Netherlands and Franche Comté (*cf.* **Plate 23***b*); and from his grandfather, Maximilian—the Austrian lands of the Habsburgs. On his election as Emperor (1519), he obtained also a supremacy over Germany and Italy, which his great resources seemed likely to turn into a reality. The Austrian lands Charles made over to his brother, Ferdinand, thus establishing those two branches of the Habsburg House, whose relations largely governed European politics during the next two centuries; in 1526 the Austrian lands were increased by the succession to Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia and Hungary (**Plate 25***a*), though the greater part of the last-named was conquered by the Turks in the same year (*see* **Plate 25***b*). Note, however, (1) that Charles' dominions were so scattered that the communications between them were in every case dependent upon his enemies; (2) that while they threatened to surround France, they also lay exposed to the attacks of that consolidated power, with which he waged continual war; (3) that in the East he was exposed to danger from the Turks, and had to face the formidable power of Solyman the Magnificent; (4) that in Italy his position was such as to alarm the Papacy as much as the Empire of the Hohenstauffen had done; (5) that in Germany he had to count upon the jealousy of all the smaller princes, and especially had to deal with the Reformation, a movement of which these princes made use for their own purposes. Thus, despite all his resources, patience and skill, he failed to consolidate his power in Germany and Italy, and left these countries even more deeply divided than before.

The main political fact of the sixteenth century was the rapid growth of the Reformed religion in Central Europe. The extent of this growth towards the end of the century is shown in Fig. IV., where it should be noted that at the beginning of the seventeenth century, not only Northern Germany but Bavaria and the Habsburg lands seemed likely to adopt Protestantism. It was the work of the Counter-Reformation, of Philip II, Ferdinand of Styria, Maximilian of Bavaria, and of the Thirty Years' War, to prevent this.

Europe at the Peace of Westphalia (Plate 9).—After the century and a half of warfare which followed the Reformation, Europe re-adjusted its political relations in the important Treaties of Westphalia, which continued to govern European politics till the French Revolution. At the same time the treaties recognized the division of Western Europe between the Roman and the Protestant faiths. This division, which is shown in Fig. V, has continued, almost without change, until to-day. In the political re-adjustment some outstanding facts should be noted. (1) The growth of France, now beyond rivalry the first power of Europe. By the acquisition of the bishoprics of Metz, Toul and Verdun, and of a great part of Alsace, she had begun that process of advance on the north-east, at the expense of Germany and of Spain, which was to alarm Europe. (2) The greatness of Sweden, now for a short time one of the great powers. She had, since the date of the last map, acquired Ingria and Carelia from Russia (1617), Esthonia and Livonia from Poland (1629), and thus controlled the eastern shore of the Baltic. As a result of the part she had played in the Thirty



FIG. IV.—RELIGIONS OF CENTRAL EUROPE, C. 1600.

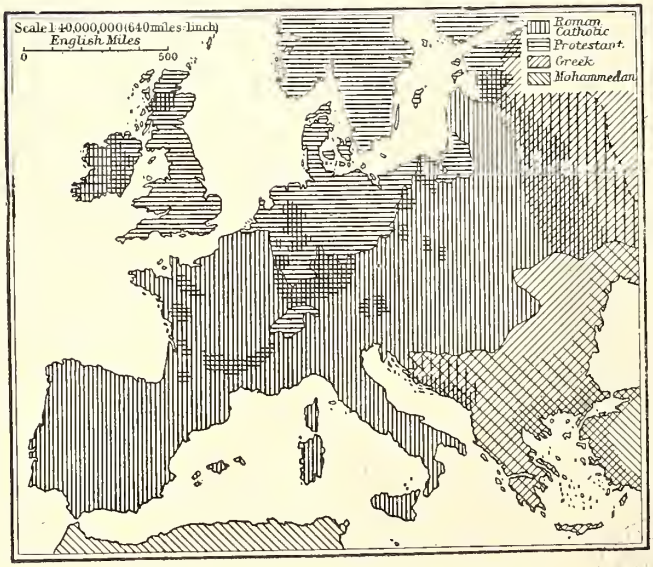


FIG. V.—RELIGIONS OF EUROPE, C. 1648.

Years' War she acquired, at Westphalia, West Pomerania, with control over the mouth of the Oder, and the Bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, with control over the mouths of the Weser and Elbe. (3) The United Provinces, having successfully revolted from Spain, obtained recognition of their independence in 1648, and were also declared to be no longer part of the Empire. They were at the height of their brief period of greatness as one of the leading powers of Europe. (4) Germany had thus shrunk in area, and found herself, owing to her disintegration, a prey to the ambition of external powers, while the Treaties of Westphalia, regarded as a "fundamental law of the Empire," stereotyped her hopeless disorganisation. (5) Within Germany the greatest power was that of the Habsburg House, in which the title of Emperor had almost become hereditary; but Austria was still seriously threatened by the Turk, and her territories were, racially, much divided (*cf.* Fig. XXI). Among the other German powers, Brandenburg made the greatest gains by the treaties, and the growth of its power is henceforth the main feature of German history (*see* **Plate 24**). (6) Poland and Turkey were still at their maximum of territory. Note how they and Sweden shut out Russia from all contact with the sea and with Western Europe. It is in this region that the main changes in the map of Europe are hereafter to take place (*see* **Plate 26**).

Europe in 1740 (Plate 10.)—This plate illustrates the complicated wars and diplomacies of the eighteenth century. The chief points to note are—(1) The continued growth of France on the east and north-east: Franche-Comté, the remainder of Alsace, Lorraine and a large slice of the Netherlands having been added by Louis XIV and Louis XV (*see* also **Plates 15***c* and 23*c*); Lorraine was acquired in virtue of the Treaty of Vienna, 1737, but was not incorporated as French territory till 1766, on the death of the ex-king Stanislas of Poland; (2) the bulk of the Spanish dominions had passed to the House of Bourbon, the Netherlands to Austria, in accordance with the treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt; (4) the position of Hanover involved England in the complicated relations of Europe; (5) the power of Sweden had shrunk by the loss of Bremen and Verden to Hanover, part of W. Pomerania to Brandenburg (since 1700 known as the kingdom of Prussia), and the Baltic provinces to Russia; (6) Poland, had lost a great strip of territory on the east to Russia (1667) (*see* **Plate 26***a*); (7) the Ottoman Empire had lost all Hungary; (8) but while these great states of the seventeenth century were declining, two new kingdoms show a marked advance since the date of the last map:—Savoy, now the kingdom of Sardinia, and Brandenburg, now the kingdom of Prussia. These two new kingdoms were to become the nuclei of modern Italy and Germany.

Europe under Napoleon, 1810 (Plate 11).—Each stage in the career of Napoleon was marked by some change in the map of Europe. Among these numerous and temporary changes only the final stage is here shown, representing the Napoleonic Empire at its height, when after Austerlitz and Jena, Austria and Prussia had been brought to their knees, and almost all the rest of Europe was in dependent alliance with the Emperor. Napoleon's direct acquisitions of territory (coloured dark green) include the whole coast of the North Sea from the Scheldt to the Elbe, an annexation

NAPOLEONIC BATTLES.—I & II.

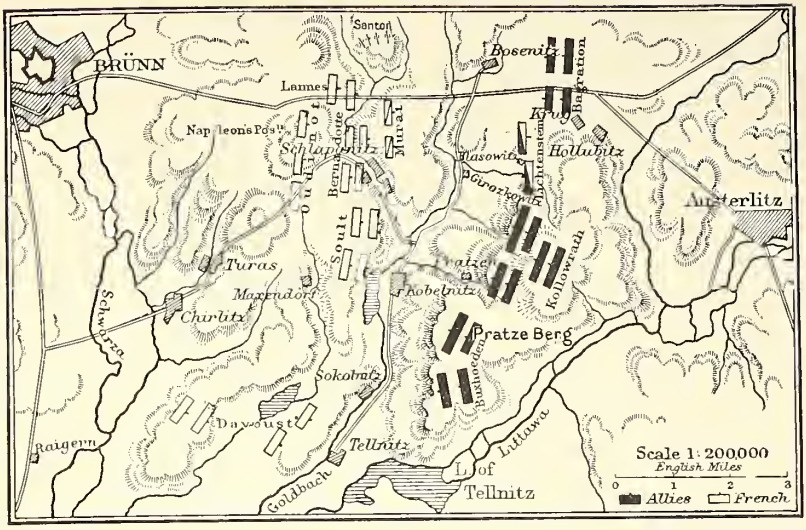


FIG. VI.—THE BATTLE OF AUSTERLITZ, DECEMBER 2, 1805.

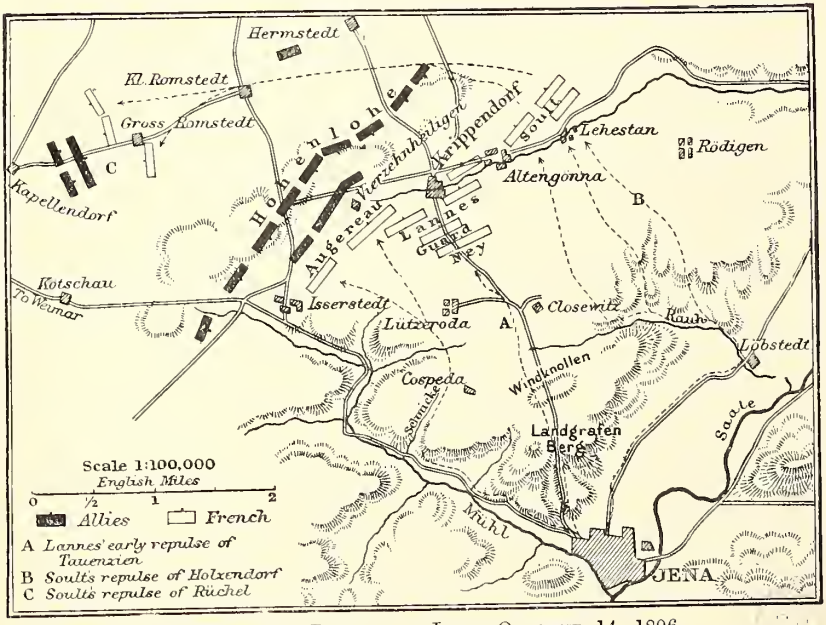


FIG. VII.—THE BATTLE OF JENA, OCTOBER 14, 1806.

NAPOLEONIC BATTLES.—III. & IV.

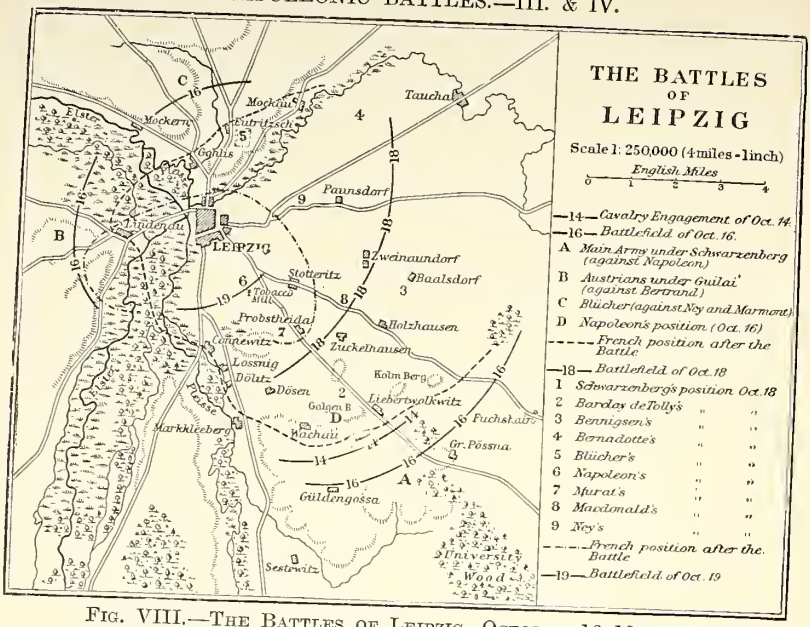


FIG. VIII.—THE BATTLES OF LEIPZIG, OCTOBER 16–19, 1813.

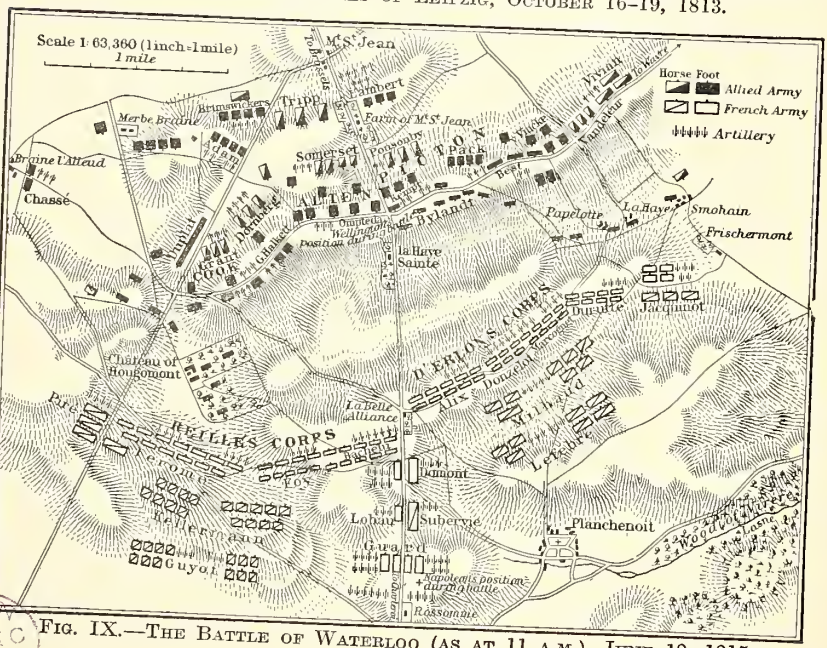


FIG. IX.—THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO (AS AT 11 A.M.), JUNE 18, 1815.

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rendered necessary as a means of enforcing the exclusion of English goods ; a large part of Italy ; and the Adriatic coast, the latter in order to cut off Austria from contact with the sea and with her former English allies. In regard to the dependent states of his Empire (coloured light green) it should be noted (1) that the Confederation of the Rhine immensely simplified the political geography of Germany and encouraged the rise of German national feeling ; it was impossible even for the diplomatists of 1815 to restore the old confusion. In a measure, the same may be said of Italy, though there the restoration was more complete : the Napoleonic deluge obliterated many irrational divisions, and, at least, showed that they were neither inevitable nor necessary. In Poland, again, when he created the Grand Duchy of Warsaw out of the sections of Polish territory which Austria and Prussia had received in the second and third partitions (*cf* **Plate 26***b*), he appealed to the sentiment of Nationalism. But note the expansion of Russia since the date of the last map. She kept in the time of Napoleon all that she had annexed from Sweden, Poland and Turkey (**Plate 26**) and added Finland. A more detailed treatment of the Napoleonic reconstruction of Western Germany will be found in Figs. X, XI and XII. For the wars of the French Revolution and Napoleon, *see* **Plates 20, 21, 23***c*, **24** and Figs. VI, VII, VIII, IX, XVI.

Europe in 1815 (Plate 12).—This plate shows the reconstruction of Europe effected by the Great Powers in 1815. Note especially the features of the settlement, which by disregarding national sentiment produced the principal troubles of the nineteenth century :—(1) The forced union of Sweden and Norway ; (2) the similar union of Holland and Belgium ; (3) the restoration of the old disunion in Italy, and the controlling power exercised by Austria there in the possession of Lombardy and Venetia ; the one favourable feature being the expansion of the kingdom of Sardinia by the addition of Liguria and other lands ; (4) the revival, in the German Confederation (*see* **Plate 23***d*), of a ghost of the old Holy Roman Empire, powerless to achieve anything, and useful only as an aid to Austria in checking any movement towards unity or liberty. Germany, however, emerges greatly simplified, and above all, with one dominant power, Prussia, (**Plate 24***b*) capable of becoming a centre of unity. Note also the growth of Russia, now mistress of Finland and Poland and the shores of the Black Sea ; also having annexed Bessarabia—a step on the way to Constantinople.

Europe after the Congress of Berlin (Plate 13).—The changes in the political geography of Europe which have taken place during the nineteenth century have been due mainly to the movements for national unity and independence which were the chief cause, along with the Liberal or Constitutional movement, for the successive wars and revolutions which harassed Europe between 1815 and 1880. Their main results have been (1) the consolidation of the two great states of Germany and Italy, whose disintegration had given rise to most of the military and diplomatic events of the fifteenth, sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries ; (2) the break-up of the Ottoman Empire and the creation of a group of minor states in the Balkan peninsula ; (3) the establishment of the small independent Kingdom of Belgium. Since the date of the map the union of Sweden and Norway,

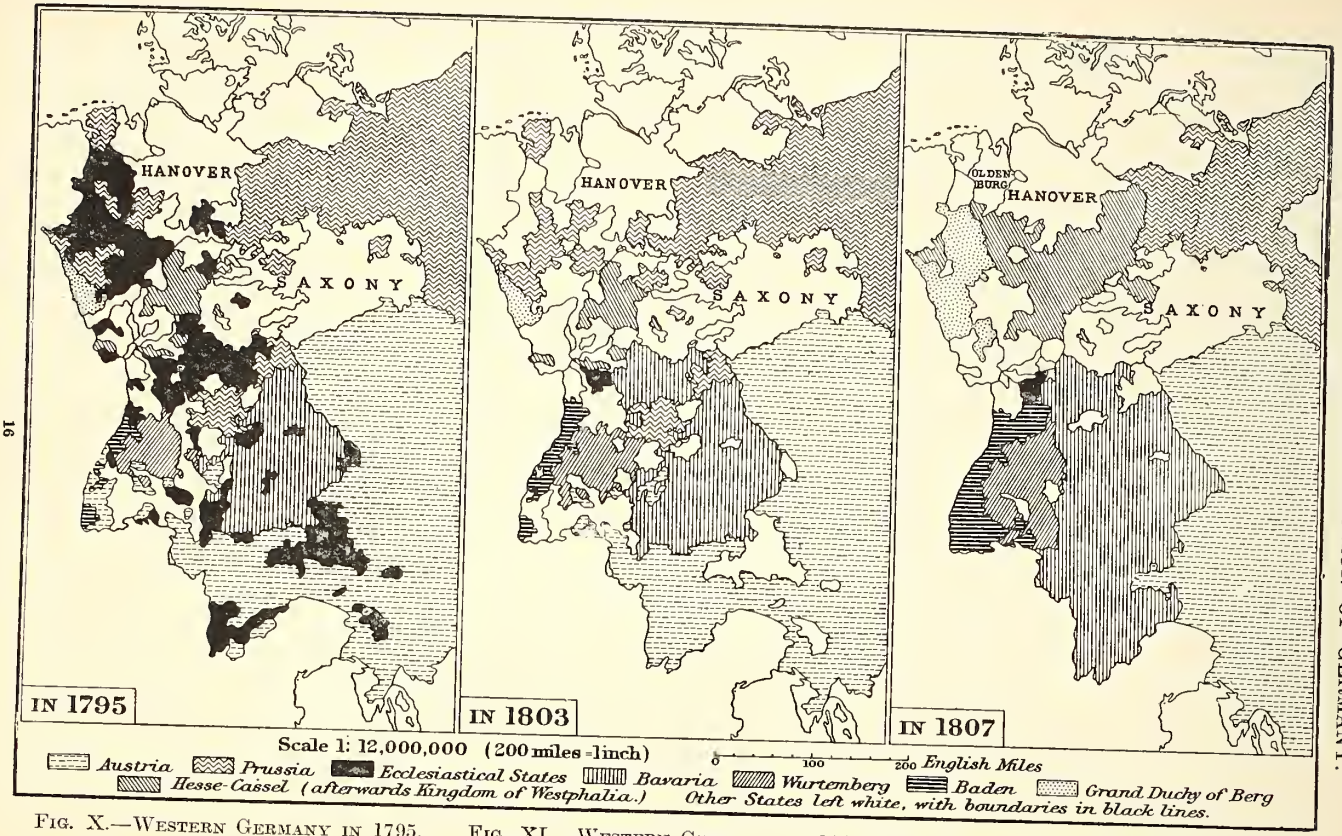


FIG. X.—WESTERN GERMANY IN 1795. FIG. XI.—WESTERN GERMANY IN 1803. FIG. XII.—WESTERN GERMANY IN 1807.

which like that of Holland and Belgium, was established in 1815 without consultation of the peoples concerned, has been peacefully dissolved (1905). Apart from this there have been no subsequent changes of importance except the formal annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria, which had occupied them under the terms of the Treaty of Berlin. The earliest infractions of the Treaty of Paris were the establishment of the independence of Greece and of Belgium (1830). Next came the beginning of the union of Italy (*see* **Plate 18***b*), under the aegis of Napoleon III, 1859–60. The second stage in the union of Italy (acquisition of Venetia, 1866) was rendered possible by the attack of Prussia upon Austria in that year; the third and last stage (acquisition of Rome, 1872) was rendered possible by the attack of Germany upon France (1870), whose forces had maintained the papal power in Rome. Thus the creation of united Italy has been, with poetic justice, intimately linked with the consolidation of Germany. In the union of Germany the main features were (1) the gradual combination of the German states in a commercial union (*see* **Plate 51***d*) under the leadership of Prussia; (2) the expansion of Prussia by the acquisition of Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover and Hesse-Nassau (1866) (*see* **Plate 24***b*); (3) the crushing defeat of Austria by Prussia 1866, and the extrusion of the former from the Germanic confederation; (4) the attack of the German powers, other than Austria, upon France (1870) under the leadership of Prussia, the dramatic vengeance taken for the long period of French aggression upon Germany by the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine, and the consolidation of the allied German states into the German Empire (1871). For the recast of the Balkan peninsula (*see* **Plate 28***a*). The other territorial changes of the period include (1) the acquisition by France of Savoy and Nice (1860), the price paid by Italy for French aid against Austria; and of Algeria (from 1828); (2) the full incorporation in the Russian Empire of Poland and Finland, which were left by the treaties of 1815 as independent states only linked to Russia by subjection to the same monarch; (3) the annexation by Austria of the little republic of Cracow, the sole free remnant of Poland left by the monarchs of 1815. The main feature of European history since 1881 has been the competition of the great powers for extra-European possessions. This is fully illustrated in Section IV of the Atlas.

SECTION II.—THE GROWTH OF THE PRINCIPAL STATES OF EUROPE. PLATES 14–29.

The maps in this section deal in turn with each of the principal states or regions of Europe. The periods dealt with also supplement, and fill the gaps between, the general European maps. In general a large physical map of each area is given, showing the boundaries (usually of an early period) in red; and this is followed by a series of small maps for different periods, *which the student should always read in conjunction with the main physical map.* A uniform scale has been preserved in the physical maps of France, Italy, Spain and Germany.

France and Burgundy in 987 (Plate 14).—Shows the original limits of the Kingdoms of France and Burgundy. France consisted essentially of the valleys of the Somme, Seine, Loire and Garonne, Burgundy of the valley of the Rhone; while the valleys of the Meuse and Moselle, forming the Duchy of Lotharingia, constituted part of the kingdom of Germany throughout the Middle Ages (*cf.* **Plate 22**). The Cevennes constituted roughly the natural frontier between France and Burgundy. Note the *Duchy* of Burgundy, cut off from the kingdom by the Partition of Verdun, 843, and always thereafter part of France. In the following maps the student should trace the gradual acquisition by France of the whole of the kingdom of Burgundy, except Savoy (acquired by France in 1860, *see* **Plate 18***b*) and Western Switzerland. Note also the great original territorial divisions of France: (1) the Duchy of Francia, corresponding to the Neustria of the later Merovingians and early Carolingians, from which (2) the Duchy of Normandy was cut off by the Treaty of St.-Clair-sur-Epte in 911; (3) the County of Flanders; (4) the Celtic Duchy of Brittany; (5) the vast Duchy of Aquitaine; (6) the Duchy of Gascony; (7) the County of Toulouse; (8) the District of Septimania, or Gothia, the last part of France held by the Visigoths; and (9) the County of Barcelona —i.e., the Spanish March, conquered by Charlemagne, which remained nominally part of the kingdom of France until 1258. Within these greater divisions some of the mediate feudal states are noted, but without precise boundaries, because these frequently shifted.

The Growth of France (Plate 15).—The development of the French monarchy falls naturally into four periods: (1) From Philip Augustus to the Hundred Years' War (1180–1337), in which the chief feature is the gradual subjugation of the great feudatories. This period is illustrated in **15***a*, but it is impossible to show in detail in a single map the complicated history of the royal domain; for further detail *see* "Longnon's Atlas of French History." Territories acquired by the Crown were frequently alienated as "appanages" for younger members of the royal house, and were not reacquired till much later. Thus *Poitou* was conquered from John and Henry III. of England by Philip Augustus and Louis VIII., but became an "appanage" of Alphonse, Louis VIII.'s son; Alphonse married the heiress of the County of Toulouse and Marquisate (not County) of Provence, and on his death without heirs these lands along with Poitou passed to Philip III. of France. Poitou is therefore coloured for Philip III., not for Philip Augustus. Again, *Artois*, acquired by Philip Augustus,

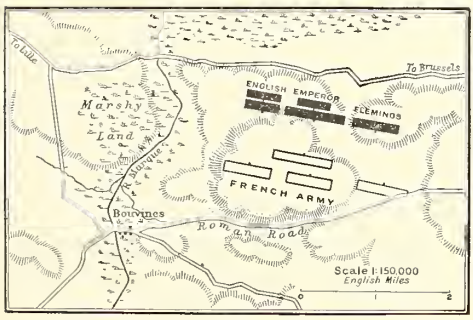


Fig. XIII.—The Battle of Bouvines, July 27, 1214.

became the appanage of Robert, another son of Louis VIII.; it subsequently fell into the hands of the House of Burgundy, and was not finally added to the royal domain until the time of Louis XIV. For the Battle of Bouvines, the supreme victory of Philip Augustus, see Fig. XIII. (2) The second period is that of the Hundred Years' War (1337–1453). This is illustrated by the two maps, **Plate 36***a* and *b*, and by Figs. XXX–XXXII, p. 40. The period left France exhausted and disorganized, but sick of feudal disorder, and therefore ready for the reconstruction work of Louis XI. (3) The third period extends to the end of the Wars of Religion and the beginning of the ascendancy of France under Henry IV. This is illustrated by **15***b*. The main features of this period are (*a*) the suppression of the last great

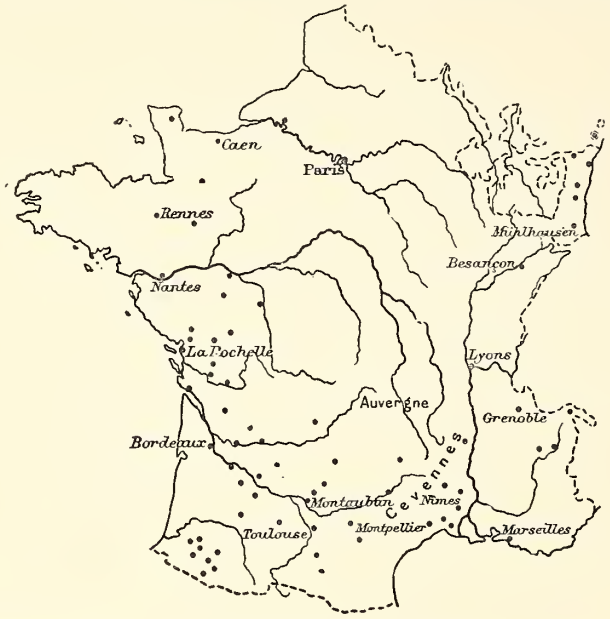


Fig. XIV.—Protestants in France.

The black dots indicate the chief recognised places of Protestant worship in the reign of Louis XIV.

independent feudal states: Burgundy, on the death of Charles the Bold (1477); Brittany, on the marriage of its heiress, Anne, to Charles VIII. (1491); Anjou and Provence, by the deaths of René and Charles of Anjou (1480 and 1481); (*b*) the part played during the sixteenth century by the powerful Bourbon branch of the royal line: the lands of the Constable Bourbon in the reign of Francis I. and of the Bourbons of Navarre, the Protestant leaders during the Wars of Religion, are specially indicated on the map, which also shows the principal places of importance during this war. The distribution of the Huguenots in France is illustrated by

Fig. XIV., which shows the chief recognised Protestant centres where public worship was licensed under the Edict of Nantes. Note that Protestantism found its chief centres in the west, from Normany to Gascony (except Brittany), and in the south, in the old country of the Albigenses. Compare the Bourbon lands in **15***b* with the Protestant districts shown in Fig. XIV.
(4) The fourth period extends from the Wars of Religion to the French Revolution, and is the great age of absolute monarchy, with the reign of



Fig. XV.—Provinces or Governments of France before the French Revolution.

Louis XIV. as its central point. In Fig. XV. the provinces or governments of France during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and down to the French Revolution are shown. The chief feature of this age is the rounding off of the frontiers at the expense of Germany and Spain, especially on the north and south (**15***c* and *d*). In **15***c*, the Bishoprics of Metz, Toul and Verdun are coloured as having been acquired by Louis XIV. because they were finally ceded by the Empire in 1648; but they had been held by France since their conquest by Henry II. in 1552. For the variations

of the N.E. frontier of France since 1648, *see* **Plate 23***c*. For the Franco-German War, *see* **Plate 52***b*.

Italy about 600 (Plate 16).—Mediaeval Italy began with the establishment of the Lombards, who, failing to make themselves masters of the whole peninsula, broke it into fragments, which were never re-united until the nineteenth century. The Lombard territories fall into two distinct blocks: (1) The *Kingdom* occupying the Po Valley and Tuscany; (2) the two great *Duchies* of Spoleto and Benevento in the south. These were separated by an irregular belt of territory extending diagonally across Italy from north to south, which until the coronation of Charlemagne recognised the superiority of the Emperor at Constantinople. This region was ruled (*a*) from Ravenna, where the representative of the Emperor held court as Exarch (hence the provincial name Exarchate), and (*b*) from Rome, where the authority of the Pope was steadily increased by the confusion. This territory (approximately) was made over to the Pope by Charlemagne on his conquest of Italy, and it roughly corresponds to the area of the Papal states down to the nineteenth century. The coastal regions controlled by Genoa, Venice, Naples and Amalfi, also recognised the nominal supremacy of the Emperor; while the southern extremities of the peninsula and the three great islands remained in the possession of the Emperor until they were conquered—the islands by the Saracens (c. 850), and Southern Italy by the Normans (1016–55).

Italy at different periods (Plate 17).—**17***a* shows the beginnings of the Papal states, the extent of the overlordship intermittently exercised by the German kings from 962 onwards (coloured pink), the beginnings of the rise of Venice, and the chaos of S. Italy before the coming of the Normans, the dates of whose successive conquests are noted on the map; (**17***b*) illustrates the struggles between the Papacy and the Empire (Guelf and Ghibelline) in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and especially during the reign of Frederick II. (1215–50); the Lombard and Tuscan leagues as shown on the map are the leagues as they existed from 1226. (**17***c*) shows in some detail the most important part of Italy in the greatest age of its history, that of the Renascence: and is intended also to illustrate the Wars of Italy, 1494–1544; see also Fig. XVI. The part of the Papal States outlined in blue was occupied by numerous independent princelets. It was here that Caesar Borgia and his father Alexander VI. laboured to create a consolidated state (1500–3). **17***d* and **17***e* trace the territorial expansion of the two most interesting Italian states in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Note the comparative lateness of the expansion of Venice, which only began when powerful hostile states (especially the Duchy of Milan) threatened to control the passes through which her commerce reached Central Europe.

Italy and the Iberian Peninsula at different periods (Plate 18).—Note the crystallisation of Italy in this period into ten defined states, six of major and four of minor rank. Though there is a good deal of dynastic rearrangement during the period, there is little change in boundaries, until the great recast under Napoleon (*see* **Plate 11**). The chief point to note is the rise

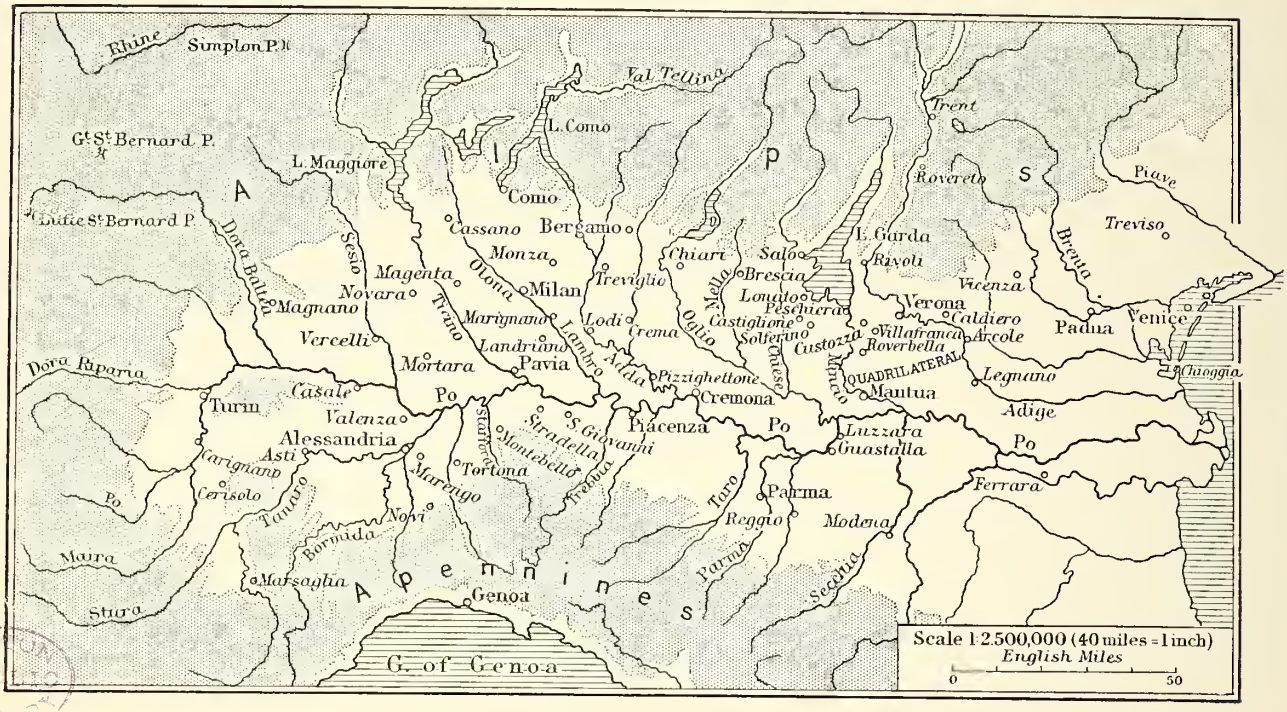


FIG. XVI.—BATTLEFIELDS OF NORTHERN ITALY.

The shaded area represents the land over 1,200 feet in elevation.

of Savoy and Piedmont to royal rank at the expense of the Bourbons, first as the kingdom of Sicily (1712–18), then as the kingdom of Sardinia. (18*b*) shows the resettlement of Italy at the Treaty of Vienna, 1815. Note among the changes effected since the date of the previous map (1) the position of Austria, and (2) the growth of its future rival, Sardinia, at the expense of Lombardy and Genoa. The map also illustrates the unification of Italy, dates being given for the inclusion of each province. Much of the European warfare of the sixteenth, seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries was waged on the North Italian plain (Fig. XVI). These campaigns are invariably dominated by the outstanding physical feature of the region—the series of deep rivers which have to be crossed by any army advancing across the plain. The chief line of defence has always been at the point where the Alps advance furthest into the plain, and where the rivers Mincio and Adige, with the great fortresses of Verona, Legnano, Peschiera and Mantua, constitute a formidable obstacle, known in military annals as the Quadrilateral. **18** (*c*) and (*d*) illustrate the advance of the Christian states in Spain during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the age of crusading fervour in the Peninsula. Note in **18** (*c*) the County of Barcelona, representing the Spanish March of Charlemagne, and nominally part of the Kingdom of France until 1258. These maps should be compared with **Plate 19,** in order that the student may realize the way in which the great mountain barriers of Spain governed the advance of the Christian states.

The Iberian Peninsula at the time of the Peninsular War (Plate 19).—Illustrates more especially the periods of the Spanish Succession and Peninsular Wars. Note how the campaigns were determined by the direction of the river valleys and mountain ranges, and by the greater military roads, which are shown; also how the physical barriers in which the country abounds not only prevented effective co-operation between the various French armies and thus added to their difficulties, but accentuated the strong provincial sentiment of the various provinces of Spain. Note the magnificent strategic



Fig. XVII.—The Lines of Torres Vedras.

position of the Torres Vedras lines, a vast natural fortress, commanding the best possible base for an Atlantic naval power, and also controlling the best roads into the heart of the peninsula, from which it was possible to threaten equally all the scattered French armies. For a more detailed study of Torres Vedras, *see* Fig. XVII.

The Netherlands (Plate 20).—With the exception of the County of Flanders, which belonged to the kingdom of France (*see* **Plate 14**), the Netherlands in the Middle Ages formed part of the kingdom of Germany and the duchy of lower Lotharingia (*see* **Plate 22**). When the Empire broke into independent fragments in the thirteenth century, the Netherlands became a bundle of disconnected duchies, counties and bishoprics, which are shown in the main inset (**20***c*). They were first united under the princes of the House of Burgundy in the fifteenth century, and politically consolidated under Charles V. in the sixteenth. The main map is intended primarily to illustrate the great revolt of the second half of the sixteenth century which led to the independence of the seven northern, Protestant and Dutch states, and left the southern, Catholic states under the dominion of Spain. Note the Lands of the Generality, parts of the county of Flanders and the duchy of Brabant which were conquered by the United Provinces and administered as a dependency of the confederacy. The map also illustrates the steady aggression of France in this region during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the acquisitions of France being indicated by a green band, and the continual campaigns which made this region the battle-ground of Europe, because it was the clash point of England, France, Spain, Holland and Germany. The last and greatest of these campaigns, that of Waterloo, is specially treated in **20***b* ; for the actual battle *see* Fig.IX.

The Growth of Switzerland (Plate 21*a*) : The Alpine Barrier (21*b*).—There are three main stages in the growth of the Swiss Confederation : (1) the formation of the original " Everlasting League " of the three Forest Cantons in 1291 against the Habsburgs ; (2) the addition of the five neighbouring cantons, 1332–53 as a result of the military successes of the cantons against the Habsburgs ; (3) the struggle with Charles of Burgundy, 1474–7, bringing about the addition of new members to the confederacy, and establishing the military reputation of the Swiss. The confederation also conquered various territories from time to time, and ruled them as subject states ; while various neighbouring and kindred communities—the " Rhaetian Leagues " of the Grisons, the Bishopric of Basle, the confederate communities of the Valais, and the cantons of St. Gall and Neuchâtel—entered into alliances, more or less specific, with the Swiss Confederation as a whole, but without giving up their own independence.

The Alpine Barrier has so largely determined the political, military and ethnical relations of France and Germany with Italy, that it is important to grasp its conformation as a whole, and to realise the main routes and passes by which this barrier has been traversed by the armies of the successive invaders of Italy. While the map has been designed to illustrate all periods, the place names shown relate more especially to the Revolutionary and Napoleonic era, when (as in the time of Louis XIV) the struggle between

France and Germany raged concurrently across South Germany and North Italy, on each side of the barrier, which accordingly became in a large degree the governing factor in these campaigns.

Germany about 962 (Plate 22).—Shows the beginning of the kingdom of Germany and illustrates its political history down to the twelfth century. Note that the original Germany consisted of the valleys of the Weser, Ems, Rhine, Meuse, Moselle and Upper Danube. The Elbe, the Saale, and the Bohemian Forest constituted the boundary between the German lands and the Slavonic lands. East of this line a broad band of Marches or border States extended as far as the Oder, forming the beginning of the eastward expansion of Germany. Note the five great nation-duchies of Germany—Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, Bavaria, and Lotharingia—whose provincial spirit of independence formed the greatest obstacle to German unity down to the twelfth century.

Germany at different periods (Plate 23).—The history of Germany may be divided into four periods. (I) From the establishment of the Saxon dynasty (918) to the fall of the Hohenstauffen (1272) Germany was beyond rivalry the greatest state of Europe, forming the heart of the Holy Roman Empire, with Burgundy and Italy as its subsidiary members; it was also (despite the growing independence of the great feudatories and the long and embittered strife with the papacy) until about 1230 the best consolidated of European states. This period is illustrated by **23** (*a*), which shows Germany at the time of its greatest power, under the Hohenstauffen; but shows also the lands and claims of the great rival House of Welf or Guelf. During this period the advance of the Germans, at the expense of the Slavs, to the east of the Elbe should be noted. See also **Plate 6.** (II) The second period, 1272–1648, is one of increasing disintegration among numerous princely families, the Empire becoming more and more a mere name. This disintegration culminated in the Reformation and the wars which followed it, and was finally confirmed by the Treaties of Westphalia, 1648. It is illustrated by **23** (*b*), which shows the disorder existing on the eve of the Reformation; *see* also **Plates 7** and **8.** The period treated in **23** (*b*) is marked: (1) by the complete disorganisation of the kingdom of Burgundy, which (as such) disappears from the map; (2) by the rise of a number of important princely families: of these, the Houses of Habsburg (in Austria), Wettin (in Saxony), Wittelsbach (in Bavaria and the Palatinate), and Hohenzollern (in Brandenburg) continue as ruling Houses to-day; (3) by the rise of a vigorous anti-German feeling among the Slavonic states, which was shown in the Hussite Wars (1419–34), and in the new vigour and greatness of Poland; the wide lands of the Jagellon House of Poland, as **23** (*b*) shows, for a moment united the chief Slav states, and overshadowed Germany; (4) by the rise, within the Empire as well as in France, of the formidable House of Burgundy, which until 1477 threatened to establish a middle kingdom between France and Germany: observe that the two main blocks of Burgundian territory might be united either at the expense of France (Champagne) or at that of Germany (Lorraine); (5) by the establishment of the Swiss Confederation (*see* **Plate 21** (*a*)); (6) by the power

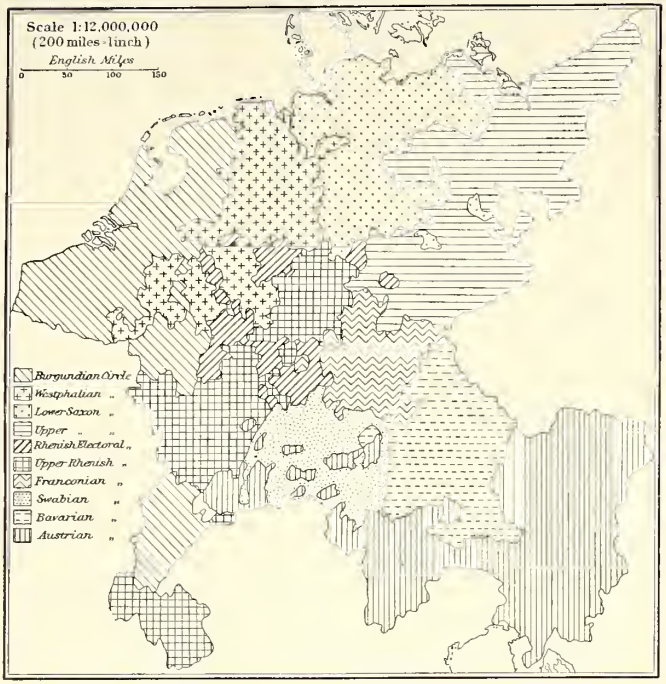


FIG. XVIII.—THE GERMAN CIRCLES IN THE 16TH CENTURY.

of the Hanseatic League, which was due to the inability of the Emperor to protect trade (*see* Fig. III); (7) by the conquest and conversion of the heathen Prussians, etc., not through any national German enterprise, but through the independent activity of the Teutonic knights (since 1226). The only serious attempt made to overcome the disorganisation of Germany was the grouping of the various states into "Circles," illustrated by Fig. XVIII. In 1439 and again in 1500 the states not ruled by the Emperor or any of the Electors were grouped for purposes of elections to the Diet into six circles. In 1512 the Electoral and Habsburg lands were formed into four additional circles. In 1521 each circle was provided with a Captain empowered to enforce the edicts of the imperial Diet and to organise the contingents to the imperial army. Such common action as the Empire was able to take between the Reformation and the Revolution was largely due to this system, but it was far from efficient.

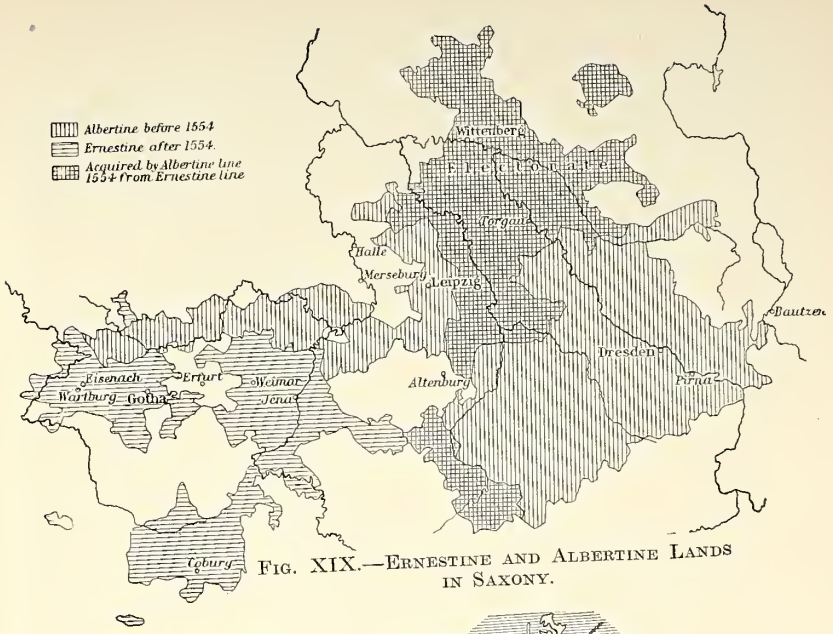


FIG. XIX.—ERNESTINE AND ALBERTINE LANDS IN SAXONY.



FIG. XX.—CAMPAIGN OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

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The influence of the Reformation on Germany is illustrated by Fig. IV. (p. 11) and **Plate 9.** The German house which played the chief part in the early stages of the Reformation was the Saxon house of Wettin : the dispute between its two branches forms one of the main episodes of the struggle, and is illustrated in Fig. XIX. The most striking episode in the terrible Thirty Years' War, the intervention of Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, is illustrated by Fig. XX (*see* p. 27), which shows the course of his brilliant campaign. During this period of disunion, Germany became the scene of the rivalries of the chief European states, especially the rivalry between France and

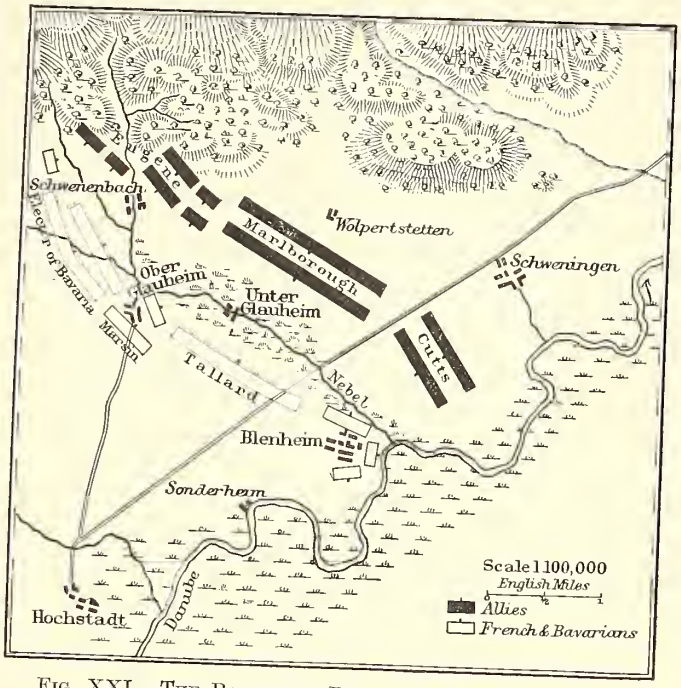


Fig. XXI.—The Battle of Blenheim, August 13, 1704.

the House of Austria (1519–1756). A principal field of this rivalry was Southern Germany, which lay between these two powers, and which was perhaps the most disorganised part of the country. **23** (*c*) shows this region in some detail, omitting the complicated political boundaries, in order to illustrate the frequent warfare both of this and of the succeeding periods. (III) The third period (1648–1806), while still one of disorganisation, is marked by the rivalry of two great German powers, Prussia and Austria, the former of which rapidly rises to the first rank among European powers. This period is illustrated by **Plates 24** and **25***a*. It is also a period of constant warfare with France, in studying which, **23** (*c*) will be found

useful. For the Battle of Blenheim *see* Fig. XXI. The period closes with the Napoleonic re-organisation of Germany, for which *see* **Plate 11** and Figs. X, XI, XII, which trace the process in some detail. For the Battles of Austerlitz and Jena, *see* Figs. VI. and VII. (p. 13); for the Battles of Leipzic and Waterloo, Figs. VIII. and IX. (p. 14). (IV) The fourth period, from 1806, is especially concerned with the re-establishment of German unity under the leadership of Prussia, Austria being excluded. **23** (*d*) shows the short-lived "German Confederation," invented by the statesmen of 1815 to replace the dissolved Holy Roman Empire, but chiefly useful to Austria as a means of checking the nationalist movement. Note the total disappearance of ecclesiastical states. The way in which tariffs were used to forward the process of consolidation of Germany is illustrated by the map of the growth of the Zollverein, **Plate 51***d*. The Franco-German War, which consummated the process of unification, and in which Germany took vengeance for the long centuries during which France had profited by her disunity, is illustrated by **Plate 52***b*, which shows the whole field of war.

Growth of Prussia (Plate 24).—See note on **Plate 23.**—The maps on this plate, besides showing the growth of Prussia, which has been the chief feature of the history of Germany since 1648, serve also to illustrate the wars and treaties of the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, especially those associated with Louis XIV. and the Great Elector, with Frederick the Great, with Napoleon, and with Bismarck. Napoleon's high-handed treatment of Prussia, after the Battle of Jena, breaks the history of Prussian expansion into two clearly marked periods. The first period extends from 1415, when the House of Hohenzollern was first planted in the Mark of Brandenburg; the chief landmarks of this period are the consolidating work of the Great Elector (1640–88), the wars and conquests of Frederick the Great (1740–86), and the partitions of Poland (1772–93–95). Thanks to these partitions, Prussia seemed likely, at the moment of its overthrow by Napoleon, to become, like the Habsburg Empire, a predominantly Slavonic rather than a German state. In 1815 it was compensated for the loss of the bulk of its Polish lands by solid acquisitions in Western Germany, which before the French Revolution had been largely occupied by ecclesiastical states. It thus became the greatest of purely German powers and the chief hope of German unity; and the way was prepared for the work of Bismarck. For the Battle of Jena, *see* Fig. VII. (p. 13.).

Growth of the Habsburg Dominions (Plate 25*a*).—The Habsburg House, which since 1519, and in a less degree since 1272, has played a leading part in European affairs, built up its vast and heterogeneous empire mainly by means of a succession of fortunate marriages and a persistent and *rusé* diplomacy, of which it is impossible to give any account here; their results are recorded in the map. Note the wide territories held at one time or another by this family and subsequently lost; especially the loss of German lands. The Austrian house held the Imperial crown continuously from 1438 till the abolition of the Holy Roman Empire in 1806 (except in the

years 1742–5), and the Presidency of the Germanic Confederation from 1815 till 1866, and was thus throughout this period the dominant power in Germany. But it has never been, at any rate since the sixteenth century, a purely German power, and, occupied chiefly with its non-German lands, was never able to obtain the real leadership of Germany. After 1526 (when Bohemia, Hungary, etc., were acquired) only a part of its territories lay even within the limits of the Empire (*see* **Plates 8, 9,** and **10**) or of the German Confederation (*see* **Plates 12** and **23***d*); even of these Bohemia, Moravia, Styria and (in part) Carinthia were Slavonic in race, speech and sentiment, while Austria itself was not part of the original Germany (*see* **Plate 22**), but though thoroughly Germanised, was like Brandenburg, a *mark* or border-province, originally Slavonic. Outside the limits of the Empire the Habsburg territories have always been occupied by a strange mixture of races, all acutely conscious of their racial distinctions and attached to their distinctive institutions: Hungarians, Slovaks, Ruthenians, Croats, Rumanians, Servians, etc. The geographical distribution of these races is shown in Fig. XXII. Since the middle of the eighteenth century the whole tendency of this divided monarchy has been towards expansion in the non-German regions. The Austro-Hungarian Empire, therefore, is not and has never been a nation-state, like the other great regions previously dealt with; it is an area occupied by fragments of almost all the races that have peopled Europe, held together only by common subjection to a ruling House. Consequently, the Habsburg House has been the foe of all nationalist movements, especially in Germany; while its geographical position has involved it in all the international contests of the last four centuries. This absence of any national basis is the clue to its political history since the sixteenth century. For the Battle of Austerlitz, *see* Fig. VI.

Growth of the Ottoman Empire (**Plate 25***b*).—The Ottoman Empire, like the Habsburg Empire, is not a nation-state, but is the empire of a small and warlike tribe, whose armies even were largely manned from among its subjects. Its power, therefore, has at all times depended upon the vigour of its rulers. Observe that the great Empire shown on the map is mainly the work of three princes: Mohammed II., Selim II. and Solyman the Magnificent. The rapidity with which the Empire was acquired was due to the division of the territory affected among a medley of hostile and ill-organised tribes, and as the Empire lacked all the elements of unity, it could have no permanence; but for the jealousies of the European powers, it must have broken up much earlier. For the first stages in the decay of the Ottoman Empire *see* **Plate 26**; for the later stages of the process *see* **Plate 28.** For the earlier history of the Balkan Peninsula and the Asiatic lands *see* the General Maps of Europe and **Plate 29.** The racial distribution of European Turkey is shown in Fig. XXII.

Middle Eastern Europe (**Plate 26**).—This pair of maps illustrates the most remarkable series of territorial changes which have taken place in Europe in modern times; changes which, despite the rapidity and high-handedness with which they were accomplished, have been, in their main features,

permanent. In **26** (*a*), three great states, Sweden, Poland and Turkey, are seen stretching across Europe from north to south. They shut out Russia from all contact with the sea or with the Western European powers; while Prussia is a minor and divided state, seemingly at the mercy of Poland and Sweden, and Austria controls only a small territory, gravely



FIG. XXII.—THE RACES OF SOUTH EASTERN EUROPE.

threatened by Turkey. In **26** (*b*), 130 years later, one of these three great states, Poland, has vanished altogether, the stages of its partition being marked by red lines (with dates) on the map; Sweden has lost most of its Baltic lands to Russia and is soon (1809) to lose Finland also; it has also lost part of its German Territory to Prussia; Turkey has lost its northern Black Sea lands to Russia, and the whole of Hungary to Austria.

The three powers, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, now almost divide Eastern Europe between them. The maps also illustrate the campaigns in Eastern Europe from 1650 to 1800.

The Growth of Russia in Europe (Plate 27).—The vast plain of Russia, intersected by numerous navigable rivers, and separated from Asia only by the easily traversed range of the Urals (*see* **27***c*), remained subject to tribal movements from Asia long after Western Europe had settled down into something like its modern condition. Russia as such began its existence with the conquests of the Varangian Northmen from 862. Their principal centres, successively dominant, were Novgorod and Kief. The Russian lands, however, broke into numerous warring states during the eleventh and twelfth centuries, and consequently fell victims during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries (*a*) to the Lithuanians and Poles on the west, who conquered many Russian lands, and (*b*) to the Golden Horde of Tartars (*cf.* **Plate 59**) on the east (1224–40), to whom the states which occupied the modern Great Russia were forced to pay tribute until the fifteenth century. Among the states thus subjected Moscow gradually took the first place, giving the name of Muscovy to the slowly growing Russian power. Under Ivan the Great (1462–1505), the Tartar yoke was thrown off, and the amazingly rapid territorial expansion of Russia began. During the sixteenth century it was extended over Asia as far as the Pacific (*see* **Plate 63**). This vast state as yet, however, played little part in the politics of Europe, being shut out from contact both with the western states and the sea by the territories of Sweden, Poland and the Ottoman Turks (*cf.* **Plate 26***a*). With the accession of Peter the Great, 1682, a new period began, which covers the whole of the eighteenth century. Its main feature is expansion at the expense of these three states. During the nineteenth century the ambitions of Russia in the direction of Turkey have been checked by the jealousies of the Western States, especially in the Crimean War, the area of which is shown in Maps *b* and *c*, and at the Congress of Berlin (*see* **Plate 28**). Its actual territorial expansion during this age has been wholly in the south and east, and is illustrated by **Plate 63.**

The Balkan Peninsula (Plate 28).—The mountainous character of the Peninsula, as well as its accessibility to invaders coming from the plains N. and N.E. of the Black Sea, have brought it about that this area, like that of the Austrian Empire to the north, is filled by a medley of races. Though the Goths, after crossing the Danube, made no permanent settlement, but passed on to Italy and the West (*see* note on **Plate 2**) later barbarian invaders took their place, the Slavs (Servians, etc.) coming from the N.W. in the sixth century, the Bulgarians from the N.E. in the seventh century. The Latin speaking Provincials (Rumanians) were thus pressed northwards into Wallachia, Moldavia and Transylvania, while the Greeks occupied the southern coast. The extent of territory at various times occupied by Slav and Bulgarians is shown in the inset Map (**28***a*). When the Ottoman Turks overran the bulk of the peninsula in the fourteenth century (*cf.* **Plate 25***b*), being few in number they did not succeed in obliterating these racial distinctions, for which see Fig. XXII. The Rumanian principalities always retained a degree of independence. But the decay of the Ottoman

power in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries did not produce any effective movement of independence in these regions ; and it was not until, in the nineteenth century, the diplomatic and military aggression of Russia encouraged the growth of nationalist sentiment among Rumanians, Greeks, Servians and Bulgarians that the actual break-up of European Turkey began. The main map is intended to illustrate the stages in this process, and in particular to bring out (*a*) the settlement proposed by Russia after her victory in the Russo-Turkish War, (*b*) the modifications demanded by the Western powers in the Treaty of Berlin.

The Crusades (Plate 29).—This plate is primarily intended to illustrate the later crusades (for the First Crusade *see* **Plate 6**), but also serves to illustrate the history of the Eastern Empire in the twelfth, thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. **29** (*b*) shows the break-up of the Eastern Empire as a result of the Fourth Crusade, and the establishment of a number of petty Latin states on its ruins. In **29** (*c*), which serves to illustrate the fighting in Syria, note the limits of the territory secured by Frederick II. by treaty in 1229, when he was under papal excommunication. He, in fact, achieved more than any of his predecessors since the First Crusade.

SECTION III.—THE BRITISH ISLES. PLATES 30–45.

Roman Britain (Plate 30).—This map illustrates not only the Roman occupation, but the influence of physical features upon early English history. Not only the mountains but the forests and marshes exercised a profound influence, breaking up the country into isolated fragments. Observe the skill with which the Roman roads overcame these obstacles, and in some degree welded the country together. Note the relation of the northern roads to the Great Wall and the defence of the northern frontier. Note also that London, though never an administrative centre under the Romans, is nevertheless the point from which all roads radiate. From the ports on the Kentish shore through which contact with the rest of the Empire was maintained, roads must run to all parts of the province ; but the dense *Anderida silva* on the left, and the marshy estuary of the Thames on the right, forced the roads to converge on the lowest convenient crossing-point over the Thames. At the centre of the road-system, with the best navigable river to bring down the products of the inland regions to her markets, and with a safe harbour which looked out towards the Continent but was at the same time far more secure from marauders than the shore-ports, London was from the beginning destined to be the capital of England. The later road-system of England, and the railway system which succeeded it, equally radiated from London. For the main roads of England before the road-building activity which set in with the Industrial Revolution, see Fig. XXIII. The student should compare this later road system with the Roman system which formed its foundation.

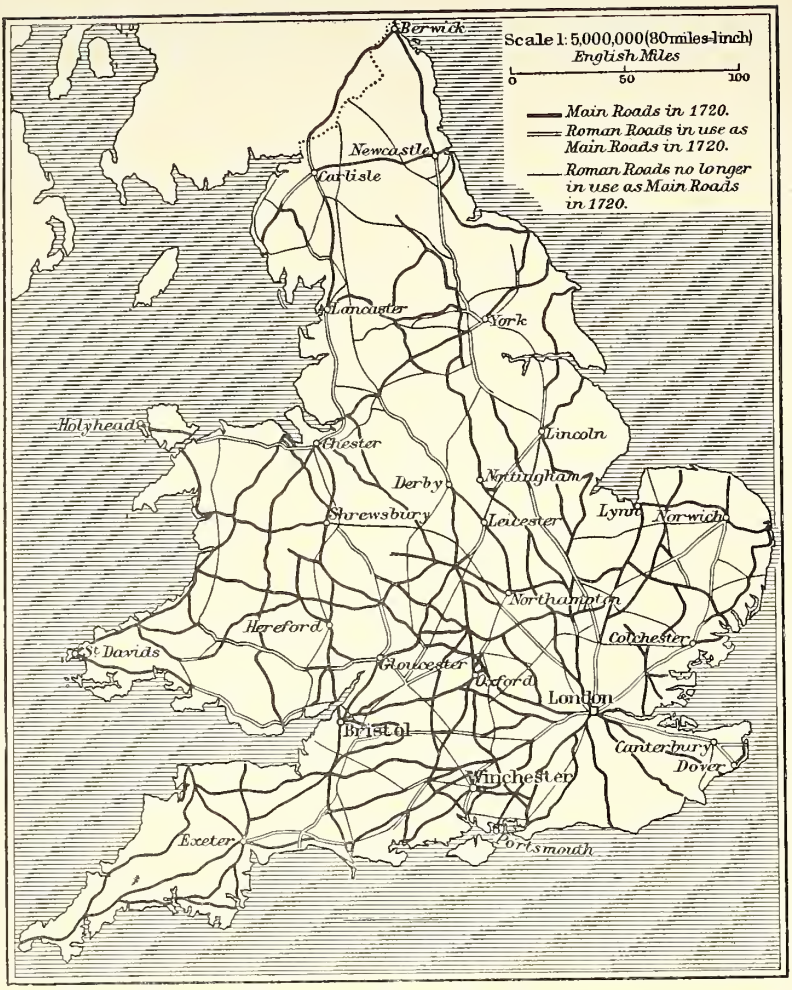


FIG. XXIII.—ENGLISH MAIN ROADS BEFORE THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

The British Isles and their Teutonic Invaders (Plate 31).—This map is intended as a supplement to the last, bringing out the build of the British Isles as a whole, in relation to the neighbouring parts of the Continent. The sea-depths indicate the way in which these islands were once connected with the Continent. Note how the lower lands, penetrated by navigable rivers, face, and invite invasion from, the opposite shores of the Continent. The main lines of the two great periods of Teutonic invasion (*a*) in the fifth and sixth and (*b*) in the ninth and tenth centuries are roughly indicated. This map should be compared with **Plate 33.**

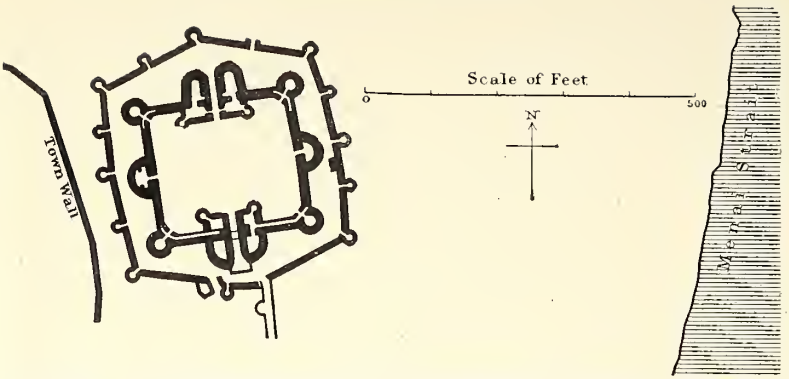


Fig. XXIV.—A Concentric Castle of the Thirteenth Century (Beaumaris).

Political Development of England before the Norman Conquest (Plate 32).—These maps, especially **32** (*a*), should be read in conjunction with **Plate 30,** in order that the student may realise how the course of the English conquest, and the divisions among the conquering tribes, were determined by the physical features. Observe the extreme slowless of the conquest as shown in **32** (*a*). It was probably only in the first stage that there was any complete displacement of the earlier Celto-Iberian population. Note the remarkable permanence of the divisions between Wessex, Mercia, etc., which survive down to the Norman Conquest, and which only a crushing force could obliterate.

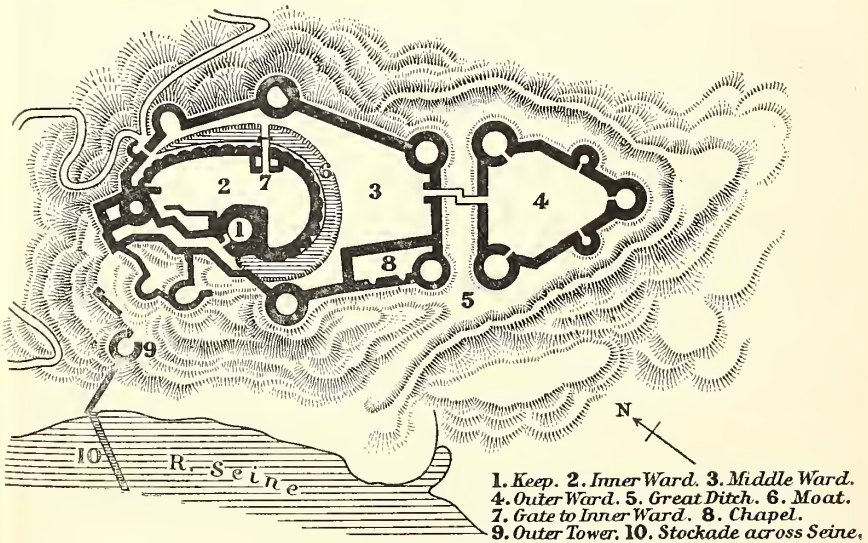


Fig. XXV.—Chateau Gaillard.

The British Isles and their Invaders in the Eleventh Century (Plate 33).—This plate is intended to illustrate the Empire of Canute, and in general the political relationships of the eleventh century, when after long isolation England was brought once again and finally into the European comity, through the enterprise of the all-pervading Northmen, first as a part of the Empire of Canute, later by the Norman Conquest. This is the century in which the restless and adventurous spirit of the Northmen achieved its greatest results; (*cf.* note on **Plate 6** above).

Mediaeval England and Wales (Plate 34).—This plate illustrates the general history of England from the Norman Conquest to the end of the Fifteenth Century. It shows (1) the chief battlefields, (2) the principal castles, (3) the boroughs which returned members to fourteenth-century Parliaments. The distribution of these gives some idea of the relative population of different parts of the country. In Wales, where there was a state of almost unceasing war, and no fixed county organisation, the boundaries given are only approximate, showing the area generally held by the Lords Marcher during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. For a more detailed treatment of Wales in the thirteenth century *see* **Plate 36*c***. The territory coloured pink in the map was under the normal administration of the sheriffs and the king's courts; all territory otherwise coloured was under special feudal jurisdiction. These special jurisdictions were all on the frontiers of Wales and Scotland, (*a*) the Palatinate of Chester with the Welsh Marcher Lordships; (*b*) the Palatinate of Durham with the Northumbrian franchises of Hexhamshire (Archbishop of York), Tynedale (King of Scots), and Redesdale (D'Umfraville). Though the Palatinate of Chester was controlled by the crown from the time of Edward I, it, as well as the palatine bishopric of Durham, retained its distinct palatine organisation throughout the period; and neither the palatine counties nor their capital cities returned members to Parliament until 1543 (Chester) and 1672 (Durham). The Palatinate of Lancaster was a later and artificial creation in honour of John of Gaunt, not necessitated by frontier defence. It had its distinct system of courts, but as the county and its boroughs had returned members to Parliament before the Palatinate was created, they continued to do so.

Under the conditions of mediaeval warfare the course of campaigns was mainly determined by the castles and walled towns, and many of the wars between the crown and the barons resolve themselves simply into a succession of sieges. In order to illustrate the methods of mediaeval military architecture at their best, plans are shown of a castle of the "concentric" type of the late thirteenth century (Fig. XXIV), and of Richard I.'s elaborate and magnificent frontier fortress of Chateau Gaillard in Normandy (Fig. XXV); while Fig. XXVIII (p. 39) shows, in Chester, an excellent example of one of the more important fortified towns with its castle. Chester occupied a position of great strategic value, commanding the bridge over the Dee and the main line of advance into North Wales. Note the relation of the mediaeval town to its Roman predecessor. The inset map to **Plate 34** treats mediaeval London and its system of defences in some detail. For the strategic position of London *see* note on **Plate 31.**

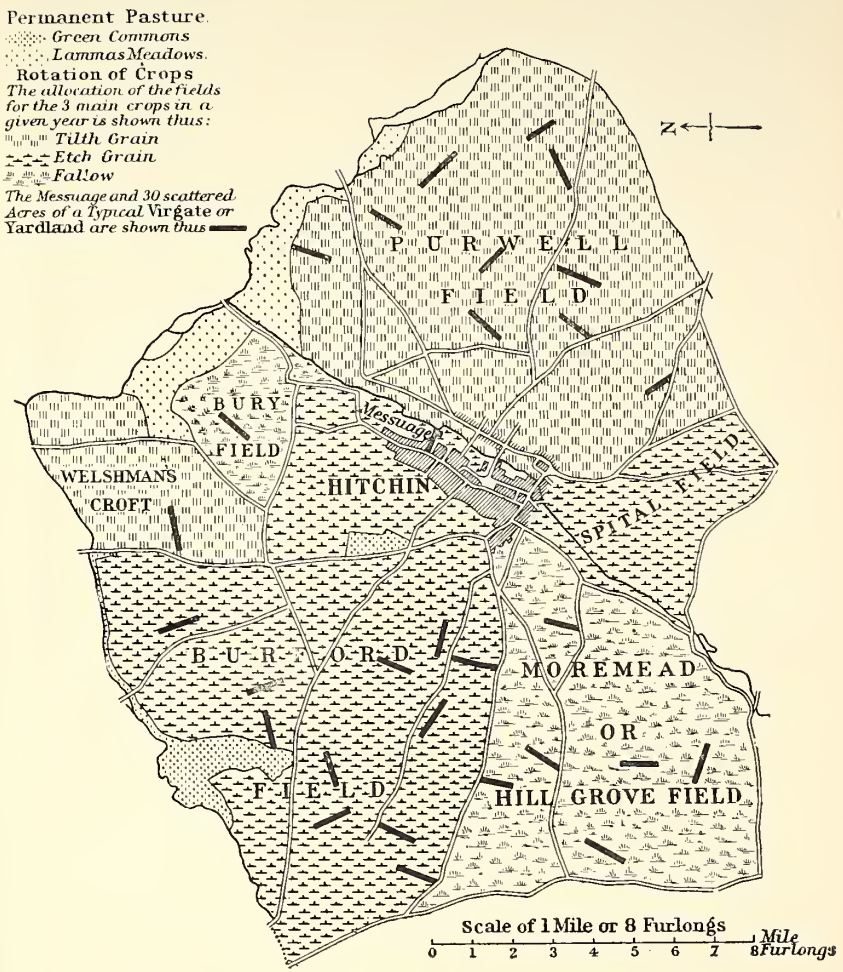


FIG. XXVI.—AN ENGLISH VILLAGE COMMUNITY.

This diagram is intended to illustrate the organisation of the mediaeval village community, the ultimate basis of the whole social structure. The map is based upon those given in Seebohm's *English Village Community*, and shows (*a*) the system of open-field husbandry with its three main fields, (*b*) the way in which the holding of a normal village was distributed over the whole area of the township, and (*c*) the normal rotation of crops which was carried out under the three field system. This system of agriculture decayed very slowly. For the extent to which it survived in England in the eighteenth century, see Fig. XXXIX. (p. 47).

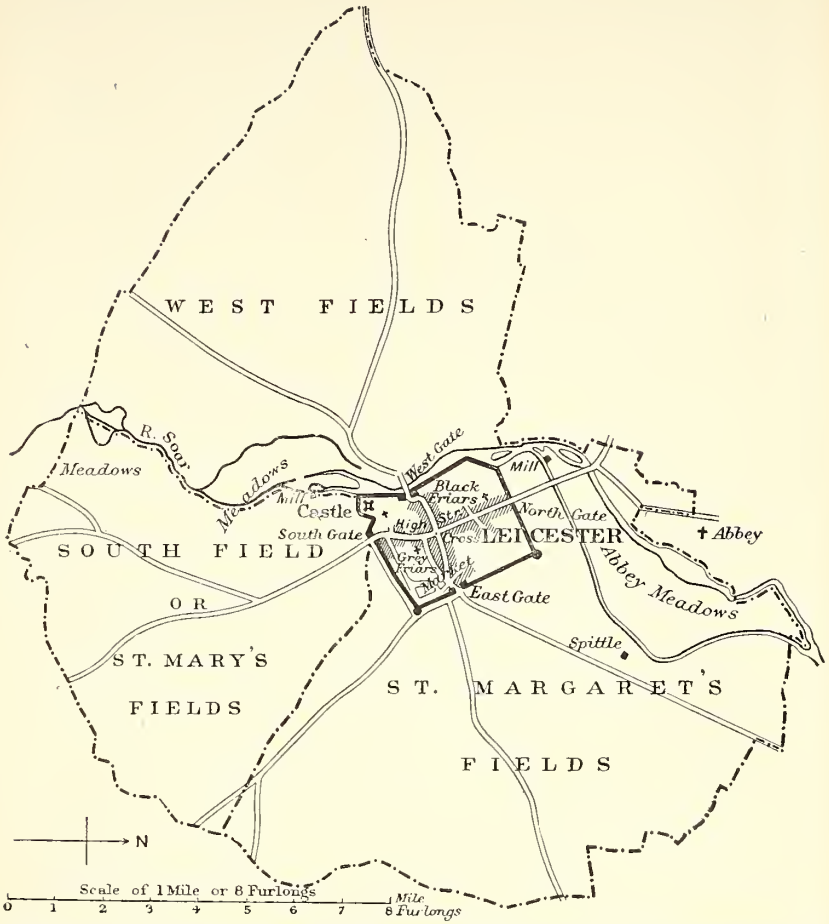


FIG. XXVII.—A MEDIAEVAL WALLED TOWN IN RELATION TO ITS FIELDS (LEICESTER).

Except in the case of London the numerous little self-governing boroughs which grew up in England during the twelfth, thirteenth and fourteenth centuries were essentially village communities, upon which were superimposed (*a*) a modest trade centre and (*b*) some organisation for defence. Most of the burghers continued to be tillers of the soil with holdings which were, until a late date, still worked on the open-field system. This intimate relation between the burghal organisation and the village organisation is brought out in the above plan (Fig. XXVII.), which shows the relation of the small fortified enclosure of Leicester to its surrounding fields.

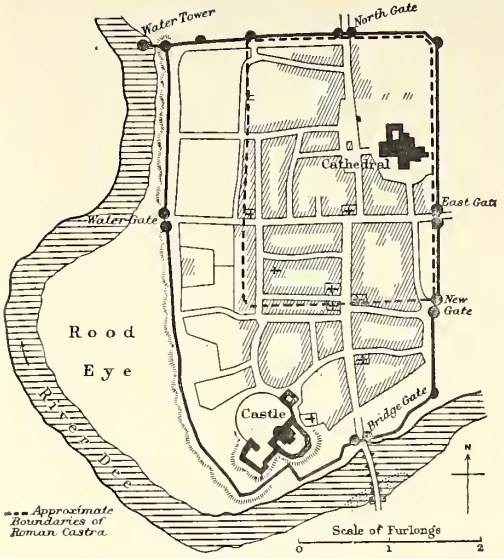


FIG. XXVIII.—A MEDIAEVAL WALLED TOWN WITH CASTLE, ON BASIS OF ROMAN FORT (CHESTER).

study of the English Conquest of Ireland, *see* **Plate 41.**

England in France, and the English Borders (Plate 36).—This plate is intended to illustrate the wars between England and her neighbours in the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth centuries—the age in which an almost continuous series of foreign adventures occupied the attention of English kings, and materially affected the internal development of the country.

The principal battles of this age of war are shown in Figs. XXIX–XXXII—Bannockburn, Fig. XXIX; Cressy, Fig. XXX; Poitiers, Fig. XXXI; Agincourt, Fig. XXXII.

The Angevin Empire of Henry II. and Richard I. (Plate 35).—The exact limits of Henry II.'s supremacy in France are not easy to determine. Many of the great barons of Aquitaine, and especially of its eastern regions, were never effectively brought into obedience, and recognised or repudiated the Angevin supremacy as it suited their convenience. For the loss of the French possessions of Henry II. *see* **Plates 15** and **36*a***. In Ireland, the area coloured dark pink is an approximate indication of the extent of territory brought under the control of the English conquerors by the end of the twelfth century. For more detailed

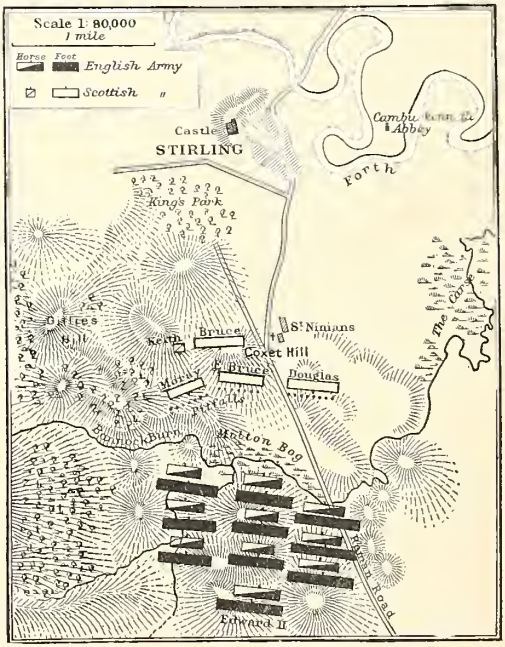


FIG. XXIX.—THE BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN, JUNE 25, 1314.

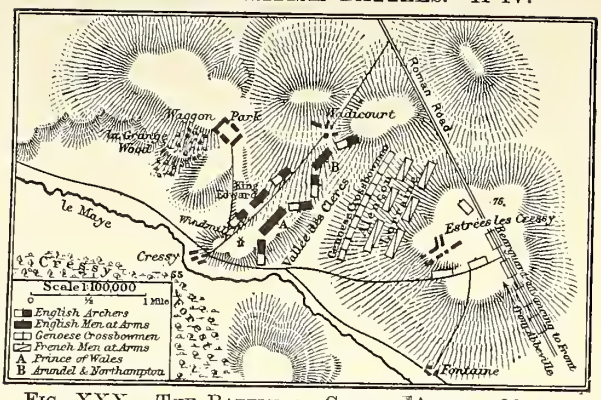


FIG. XXX.—THE BATTLE OF CRESSY, AUGUST 26, 1346.

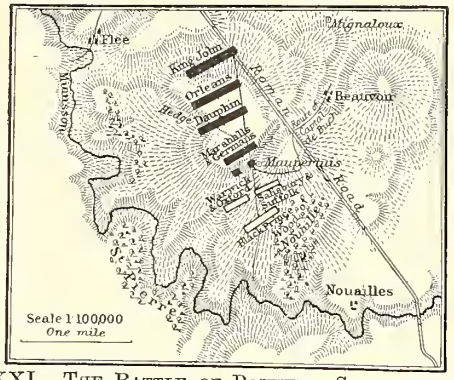


FIG. XXXI.—THE BATTLE OF POITIERS, SEPTEMBER 19, 1356.

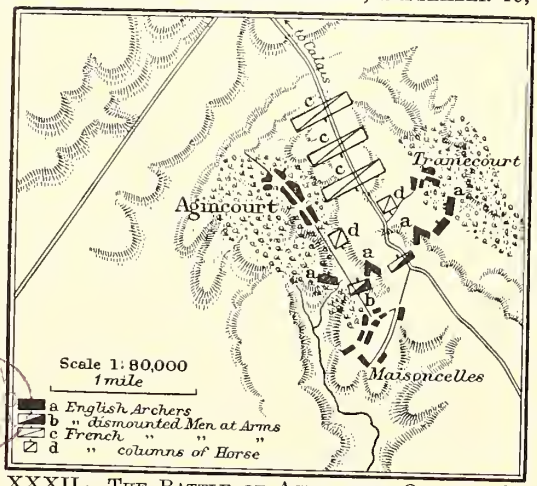


FIG. XXXII.—THE BATTLE OF AGINCOURT, OCTOBER 25, 1415.

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36 (*a*) illustrates not only the first stage of the Hundred Years' War, but the French wars of Henry III. and Edward I. The provisions of the Treaty of Paris, 1259, between Henry III. and Louis IX., are specially indicated. The failure of Philip IV. of France loyally to observe this treaty maintained a constant state of friction between England and France. **36***b* illustrates the War in France under Henry V. and Henry VI., the moment chosen being that of the widest extent of the English power, just before the appearance and victories of Joan of Arc. As this stage of the Hundred Years' War essentially consists in the intervention of England in the civil war between Burgundians and Armagnacs, it is important to observe the territories held by the Burgundian House and their influence upon the course of the war. For the later growth of the Burgundian territories *see* **Plate 23***b*. **36** (*c*) shows the principal castles in Wales and the Marches, and illustrates the important part played by this region in the Wars of the Barons, as well as Edward I.'s conquest of North Wales and his organisation of shires. Note the wide extension of the power of Llewellyn under the terms of the Treaty of Shrewsbury, 1267. This striking revival of the native Welsh power at the expense of the Lords Marcher was mainly due to the fact that these lords were devoting their strength to the baronial struggle against Henry III.—a struggle which Llewellyn used very skilfully for his own purposes. **36** (*d*) illustrates more especially the War of Scottish independence, but also the whole course of the border struggle between the two nations during the mediaeval period. For the earlier history of Scotland *see* **Plate 39.**

Ecclesiastical England to the time of Henry VIII. (Plate 37).—This map shows the ecclesiastical division of England during the later middle ages and down to the time of Henry VIII., whose new bishoprics are indicated. The inset shows roughly the boundaries of the bishoprics during the heptarchic period. These boundaries generally correspond to those of petty kingdoms. In addition to the dioceses, the main purpose of the map is to give a general impression of the number and geographical distribution of the *monasteries* on the eve of the Reformation. These fall into three classes, each indicated by a different symbol: (1) the *parliamentary* abbeys whose abbots sat in the House of Lords; these varied in number; only the 26 whose abbots

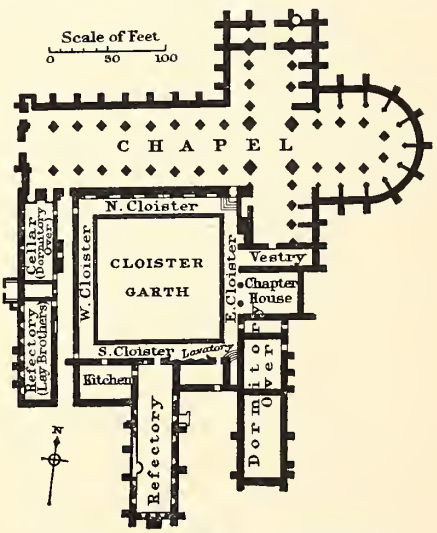


FIG. XXXIII.—MONASTIC BUILDINGS (BEAULIEU ABBEY).

were regularly summoned to the parliaments of the fifteenth century are shown; (2) the *greater* monasteries suppressed in 1539; most of these, and a few of (3) the *lesser* monasteries which are for one reason or another of special interest, are named. No attempt is made to indicate the orders to which the various houses belonged. The figures after the names of certain towns indicate that in these towns there were several monastic houses, including the Friaries, whose work was concentrated in the towns. The life of the monasteries being determined largely by the physical arrangement of their buildings, a plan of a typical monastery (Beaulieu Abbey, Hampshire) is shown in Fig. XXXIII.

England during the Civil War (Plate 38).—This plate endeavours to bring out the main features of the course of the Civil War: it is believed

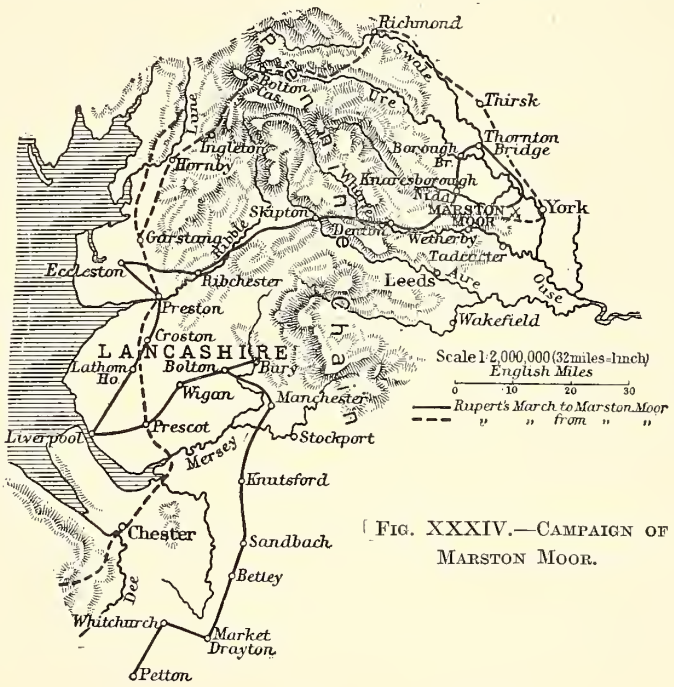


FIG. XXXIV.—CAMPAIGN OF MARSTON MOOR.

that every battle, skirmish or siege of any importance has been shown. The first map shows the results of the campaign of 1643. The King entered upon the campaign in command of the areas coloured pink and purple, the Parliament in command of those coloured blue and buff. The King's acquisitions during the year (buff) were of much greater extent than those of the Parliament (purple) and gave him command particularly of the whole

BATTLES OF THE CIVIL WAR.—I–II.

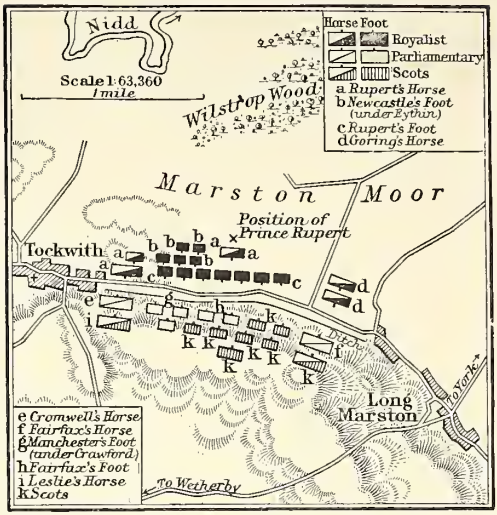


FIG. XXXV.—THE BATTLE OF MARSTON MOOR, JULY 2, 1644.

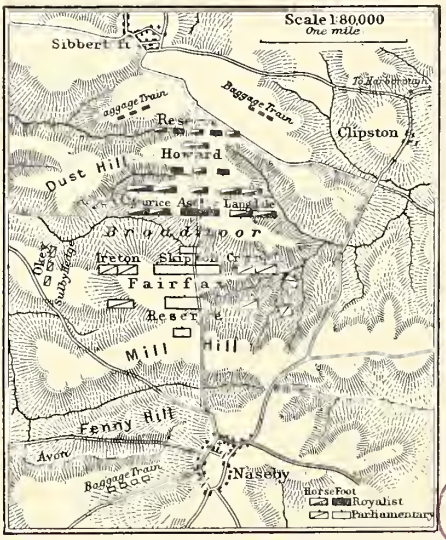


FIG. XXXVI.—THE BATTLE OF NASEBY, JUNE 14, 1645.

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BATTLES OF THE CIVIL WAR.—III–IV.

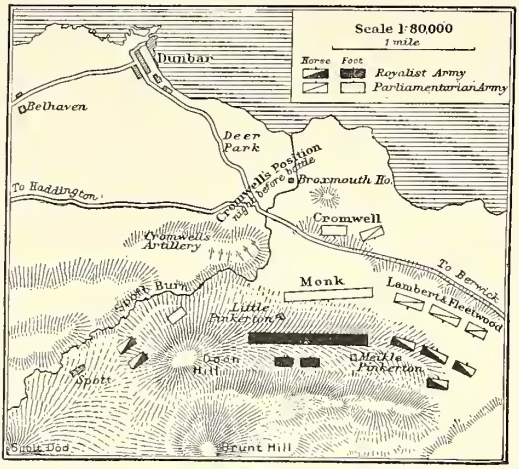


FIG. XXXVII.—THE BATTLE OF DUNBAR, SEPTEMBER 3, 1650.

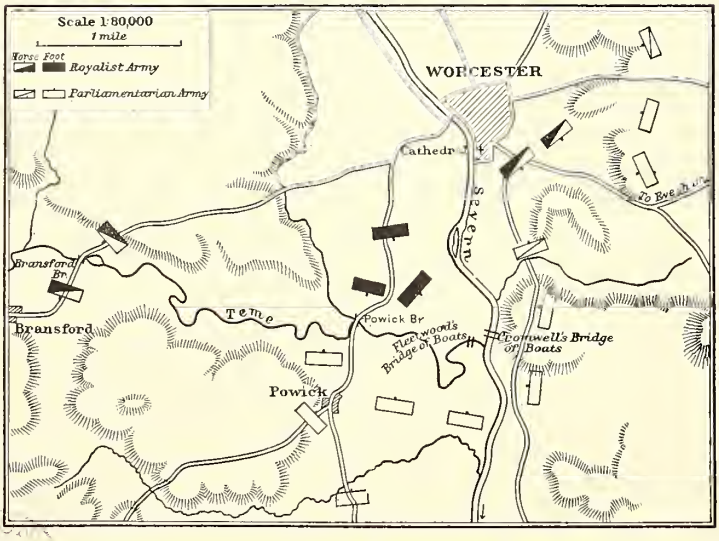


FIG. XXXVIII.—THE BATTLE OF WORCESTER, SEPTEMBER 3, 1651.

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of the south-west. But the Parliamentary conquests, though small, were so disposed as to run a wedge through the King's territories, breaking them into two blocks and especially interrupting his control of the west coast and of the route from Ireland by Cheshire. The results of the second campaign, 1644, are shown by the contrast between the first and the second map. The chief feature is that the King (by the Marston Moor campaign, *see* Figs. XXXIV and XXXV) lost the whole of the north, which had in 1643 been isolated from his southern territories. Only isolated castles and towns like Carlisle and Lathom now stood out for the King, and it only remained for the Parliament to deal with the southern area. This was the work of the third campaign, 1645; wherein, as the second map shows, the Parliamentary armies (besides beating the main royalist force at Naseby, *see* Fig. XXXVI) drove a wedge once more through the King's territories, and left him helpless, master only of two isolated and poor areas in N. Wales and the extreme south-west. The course of the second Civil War and of the Scottish invasion which ended at Worcester (*see* Fig. XXXVIII), may also be followed on the second map. For Montrose's campaigns in Scotland *see* **Plate 40***a*; for the war in Ireland, **Plate 42***a*; for the battle of Dunbar, Fig. XXXVII.

Scotland in the Eleventh Century (Plate 39).—This plate shows the diverse elements out of which the Kingdom of Scotland was welded in the eleventh and following centuries and the physical features by which these divisions were determined. The separate states thus united were: (1) Alban, (2) Moray, (3) Argyll, or Scotland proper, (4) the Norse supremacy over Sutherland and the Isles, (5) the British kingdom of Strathclyde (with Galloway), and (6) the Northumbrian region of Lothian. The student should observe how the confused mountain system of Scotland made conquest difficult, and encouraged the survival to a late date of the practical independence of the clans in the Highland valleys and in the "dales" of the southern upland near the English border. **Plate 39** shows the regional names of Scotland, such as Kyle, Badenoch, Buchan, to which literary and historical references are frequent. These should be compared with the locations of clans and families shown in **Plate 40***a* and the modern counties shown in **40***b*. For the relations between England and Scotland in the Middle Ages, *see* **Plate 36***d*.

The Modern History of Scotland (Plate 40).—These two maps are intended to illustrate Scottish history from the Reformation to the present day. They should be used in conjunction with **Plate 39.** The first map illustrates the Reformation period, the troubles of Mary Queen of Scots, the part played by Scotland in the Puritan Revolution, and the campaigns of Montrose and Cromwell. For the battle of Dunbar *see* Fig. XXXVII. Note the organisation of the border country into three Marches. This arrangement, which was balanced by a corresponding arrangement on the English side of the Border, belongs to the sixteenth century, and was designed to check the traditional turbulence of this region. Each march had its own captain with special jurisdiction. The Highland line, shown in this map, was the clearly recognised line of division between the

Celtic region where the authority of the clan chieftain held sway and the English region which more effectively accepted the royal authority. The second map illustrates the Persecution and the risings in the time of the later Stuarts, the Revolution, the Jacobite rebellions, and the general development of modern Scotland.

Early Ireland (Plate 41).—The physical conformation of Ireland is roughly that of a saucer, a rim of mountainous land surrounding a central plain, which is, however, much broken by deep and sluggish rivers, and by numerous bogs and moors (*see* inset). The map shows the distribution of the main clans in the twelfth century, on the eve of the English conquest, and the regional names (such as Ossory, Desmond, etc.) to which reference is made in its history. Alongside of its tribal organisation the main feature of early Irish society was the wide distribution of what may be called monastic colonies, in which the Abbot may be said to have played a part corresponding to that of the chief in the tribal settlements. The map attempts to indicate the number and distribution of these settlements, which were the centres of the remarkable intellectual activity of early Ireland. The only true towns in pre-English Ireland were the Danish colonies on the eastern and southern coasts.

Mediaeval and Modern Ireland (Plate 42).—During the thirteenth century the English power promised to consolidate Ireland on a feudal basis, but after the invasion of Edward Bruce (1315) the English power collapsed, and down to the reign of Henry VIII. was practically confined to the Pale, shown in the first map on this plate. During this period the Norman lords in the rest of the island rapidly assimilated themselves to their Celtic neighbours. The first map on this plate is intended especially to illustrate this period, and shows the distribution of the chief Norman houses and Celtic clans. The second map illustrates the ferocious wars of the Tudors, by whom the conquest was really effected, the course of the Civil War and of the war of the Revolution, and the distresses of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The resettlement of the land system which was carried out by the Tudors and early Stuarts is shown in the first inset (42*b*); the wholesale confiscation proposed and partly carried out by Cromwell is shown in the second inset (42*b*).

The United Kingdom—Parliamentary Representation (Plate 43).—Shows the system of parliamentary representation existing before 1832. The very full references on the plate, which should be carefully read (note the total number of members returned by each county) render detailed comment unnecessary. But the student should note the areas where names, i.e. constituencies, are most abundant. To some extent the counties most largely represented, e.g. Wiltshire (centre of the woollen trade) were the most populous. In other cases (e.g. Cornwall) this was not so. In England those boroughs which were disfranchised by the Reform Act of 1832 are indicated by the use of very small type. These boroughs were therefore all "rotten boroughs," and the student should thus be able to determine whether any particular borough was "rotten" or not. It has not been

found possible to indicate the "pocket" boroughs, i.e. those in which, though they might be important towns, the franchise was exercised upon such a system as to render easy the exercise of control by a patron. It should be remembered that the franchise in boroughs varied infinitely, in accordance with local custom.

England and the Industrial Revolution (Plate 44).—This plate illustrates the effects of the Industrial Revolution in regard to distribution of population, the rise of large towns on the coalfield areas, and the localisation of industries. In 44*a* only those parts of the coalfields are shown which were actually worked. A number of towns which were important as market towns, are shown in 44*a*; but there are only six towns shown on 44*a* which would be qualified to be shown at all on 44*b*, where no town of less than 10,000 is figured. The method of colouring for population which has been adopted is based upon the population of counties as a whole, and therefore does not bring out with precision the main centres of population in either map. But it is only on the basis of counties that any trustworthy estimates for 1701 could be obtained. Apart from London, the most populous area in 1701 was the Wiltshire woollen region; and next to it those of Yorkshire and Norfolk. In 44*b* the student should note the extraordinary aggregation of large towns in five small areas: (1) the neighbourhood of London, (2) S. Lancashire and S.W. Yorkshire, (3) S. Northumberland and Durham, (4) the W. Midlands, and (5) Glamorgan and Monmouth. Each of these forms almost a single urban area, and all, with the exception of London, are on coalfields. The main facts of the Agrarian Revolution of the eighteenth century, so far as they can be indicated by a map, are illustrated in Fig. XXXIX., which shows the part of England still largely cultivated on the open-field system at the beginning of the eighteenth century. This area had been practically entirely enclosed before 1901. The enclosure of open-fields (i.e. arable) must be distinguished from the enclosure of commons or wastes, which went on concurrently, but which it has not been found practicable to illustrate.



FIG. XXXIX.—ENCLOSURES IN ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

The area shaded vertically was mainly or largely cultivated on the open-field system in 1700; *the area shaded horizontally was partially and sporadically cultivated on this system.*

For the organisation of a township cultivated on the open-field system, *see* Figs. XXVI and XXVII. For the road-system of England before the great development in the second half of the eighteenth century, *see* Fig. XXIII.

NELSON'S BATTLES.—I–II.

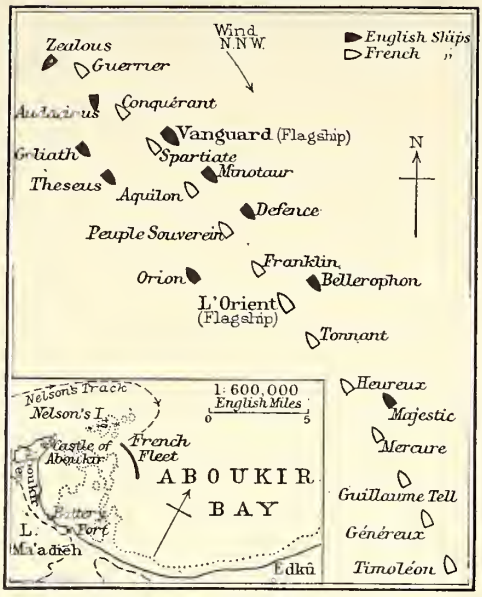


FIG. XL.—THE BATTLE OF THE NILE, AUGUST 1, 1798.

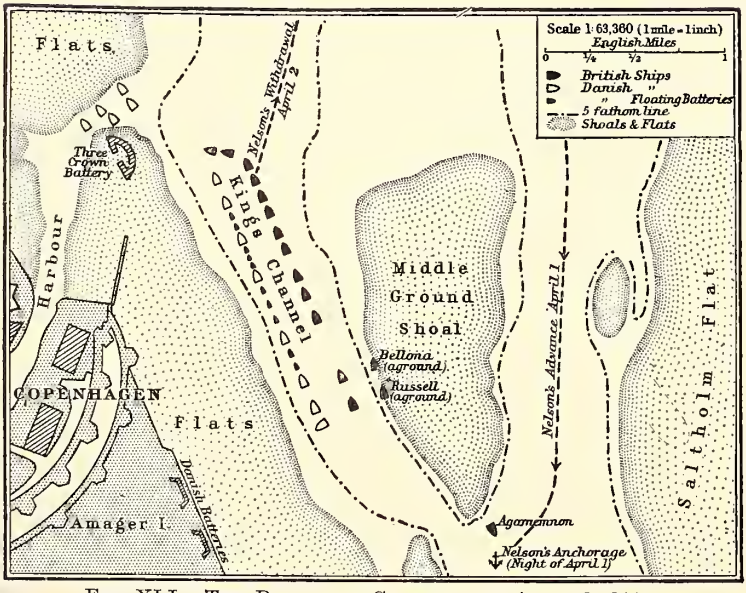


FIG. XLI.—THE BATTLE OF COPENHAGEN, APRIL 2, 1801.

The Narrow Seas and the North Atlantic (Plate 45).—The first of these maps brings out the narrow and winding channel which separates England from the Continent and which has been, from the beginning of history down to the nineteenth century, the scene of innumerable naval conflicts, because it forms the gateway from northern to southern Europe. These waters were especially the scene of conflict during the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when Spain, England, France and the United Provinces

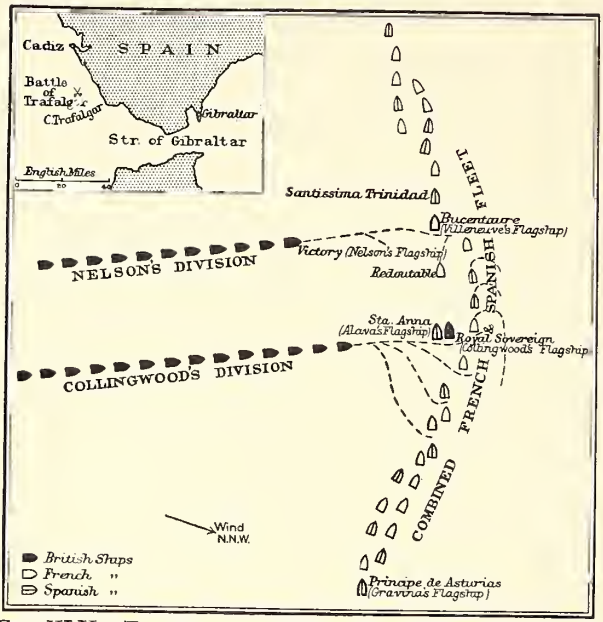


FIG. XLII.—THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR, OCTOBER 21, 1805.

were competing for naval supremacy. During all these years control of the Narrow Seas carried with it control of the ocean highways. The North Atlantic, the scene of the wider strife of the same nations, is shown in the second map, which specially illustrates the pre-Trafalgar campaign of Nelson and Villeneuve, but also the Anglo-Dutch wars of the seventeenth century, the Anglo-French struggle for America, the American Revolutionary War, and the French Revolutionary War. For plans of the Battles of the Nile, Copenhagen and Trafalgar, *see* Figs. XL, XLI and XLII.

SECTION IV.—THE EUROPEANISATION OF THE WORLD. PLATES 46–65.

The object of this section is (1) to trace in a series of general maps the course of world exploration, the part taken by the various European

states in each period in colonising work, and the growth of European geographical conceptions—this last point being illustrated by a series of reproductions of contemporary maps, on which shadow-maps of the world are superimposed, to show how far and where they were wrong ; (2) to illustrate in detail the history of those regions in which the European nations have been chiefly concerned during the last three centuries.

The Europeanisation of the World (Plates 46–52).—These maps give the general history of exploration and colonisation. In each map that part of the world which at the date of the map was either unknown or not brought under European influence is coloured pale buff. The routes of some of the chief explorers are marked on each map, except the two last, on which the principal ocean-tracks followed by commerce before and after the age of steam are figured.

The first map (**Plate 46**) shows the extent of European knowledge of the earth's surface on the eve of the great discoveries. Note (*a*) the early exploration of the coast of N. America by the Northmen, of which, however, all effective memory had been lost ; (*b*) the slow advance of the Portuguese down the west coast of Africa, which had taken practically the whole of the fifteenth century ; the Portuguese were as yet the only nation seriously engaged in exploration. The three smaller maps are intended to show the state of geographical ideas (1) in the ancient world, *Ptolemy's* map representing the ideas prevalent when the Roman Empire was at its height ; (2) in the early middle ages, *Edrisi's* map showing the state of European knowledge in the period after the First Crusade, when the Western nations had for the first time been brought into effective contact with the Saracens and their knowledge ; (3) on the eve of the great discoveries, *Fra Mauro's* map showing the state of knowledge after the overland Asiatic explorations of Marco Polo and the other explorers of the later middle ages. For Marco Polo, and also for the routes of mediaeval trade between Europe and the East, *see* **Plates 59** and **60.** Note how slight is the advance made during these long centuries. All three of the small maps show the same main features : (1) the surface of the earth mainly consists of land, no navigator having yet ventured into the open ocean except the forgotten Northmen ; (2) this land-surface consists of a single much indented mass ; (3) it is surrounded by a single "River Ocean," which runs round the whole world.

The second map (**Plate 47**) shows the results of the great explorations, the establishment of the Spanish Empire in Central America and the trade-ascendancy of the Portuguese in the East, together with the line of division between these nations, fixed by the Papal award of 1494 followed by the Treaty of Tordesillas. The first voyage of Columbus, the route of Magellan round the world, and the explorations of the North American coast by the Cabots, are also shown. This map illustrates the period of complete Spanish and Portuguese ascendancy, which covered the sixteenth century, and was consummated by the union of the Spanish and Portuguese Empires 1580. For Spanish America *see* **Plates 53** and **58.** The smaller maps show the rapid development of geographical knowledge during this period. *Behaim's* map practically consists of the application of the earlier ideas

as to the shape of the world's land-mass (*cf.* **46***d*) to the theory of the world as a sphere. Note that Columbus, sailing with this view of the world in his mind, found the West Indies very near the point where he would look for an archipelago. In *Schöner's* map, only thirty years later, the existence of the western continent, and the relative proportions of sea and land on the face of the world, are already fairly well grasped. The Spanish explorations (especially the voyage of Magellan) have determined the shape of S. America. In N. America the Gulf of Mexico is pretty accurately given, but the main mass of the continent is still unknown. Note (1) the theory of the existence of great masses of land at the south of the globe, which is still more clearly brought out in Mercator's map (**48***b*), and which made it appear that the Straits of Magellan formed the only practicable southern route to the Pacific ; (2) the theory of the N.W. Passage round N. America, which is very boldly indicated.

The third map (**Plate 48**) illustrates the feverish colonising activity of all the maritime nations which followed on the downfall of the Spanish monopoly to the end of the sixteenth century. All these nations made settlements in the W. Indies (*cf.* **Plate 53**) where they carried on buccaneering and smuggling activities ; and resorted to the coast of W. Africa for the trade in gold, ivory and slaves. The *Spanish* Empire in the West had practically reached its full extent and was falling into quiescence ; the *Portuguese*, though they maintained a share of the Eastern trade, no longer dreamed of monopoly. Of the new competitors for oversea dominion, the *Dutch* were the most systematic exploiters of their opportunities and they were the dominant colonial power of this period. They established their ascendancy in the Spice Islands (**Plate 49***c*), and the Malay Archipelago (*cf.* **49***d*), explored Australia and the surrounding seas, planted factories on the coast of India and in Ceylon, which they largely controlled, and founded at Mauritius and the Cape of Good Hope calling stations on the route to the East. In the West the Dutch were less active than in the East, but in the New Netherlands (**Plate 54***c*), they planted a colony at the most advantageous point for trade on the N. American coast, thus breaking the English settlements into two blocks ; they also made themselves masters for a time of a great part of the Portuguese territory in Brazil (*cf.* **Plate 58***a*). The *French* had since 1608 maintained struggling settlements on the St. Lawrence, which, despite their poverty, had begun the exploration of the interior by way of the great lakes. The *English* had opened out trade with the mainland of India, being excluded by the Dutch, since 1623, from the lucrative trade of the Spice Islands ; but their chief activities were the foundation of Virginia and New England on the coast of N. America. While the Western nations were exploring the sea-routes east and west and planting stations in America and the East, the *Russian* Empire (*cf.* **Plate 63**) was rapidly extending its control over Northern Asia. Siberia was overrun by the Russians in the last years of the sixteenth century. The first of the smaller maps shows the conception of the shape of the world existing at the beginning of the period. Note (in comparison with Schöner, **47***b*) the greater accuracy of the treatment of the Malay Archipelago, which had become a centre of active trade, and the defined conception of the Terra Magna Australis. This was amended by Drake's

voyage round the world, which is shown on the main map, and in the course of which he was driven South of Cape Horn. The northern extension given to the Southern land-mass in the region of Australia should be noted. It shows that some rumour of the existence of Australia had reached geographers, from the natives of the Malay Archipelago. The second of the smaller maps shows in detail the Dutch exploration of Australia and New Zealand. The mistake in the coast outline to the north was due to Tasman's having supposed that New Guinea was continuous with Australia.

The fourth map (**Plate 49**) illustrates the colonial activities of the second half of the seventeenth and the beginning of the eighteenth centuries. The chief features are (*a*) systematic colonisation, exploration and trade development by England (Carolina, Pennsylvania, Rupert's Land, Bombay) and by France (La Salle's explorations, Colbert's attempts on Madagascar, etc.); (*b*) the beginning of the period of world-wide colonial wars between the great powers, which in this period began to realise the national strength to be derived from the control of colonies and especially of the trade in the luxuries of the tropical regions in East and West. The West Indies and West Africa began to see, not only buccaneering and unofficial adventurers, but national fleets. Three wars between the English and the Dutch undermined Dutch naval supremacy and expelled the Dutch from N. America (*cf.* **Plate 54**). Two wars between French and English, though fought primarily on European questions, were inevitably extended to America, and resulted in the cession of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland to England, which thus controlled the mouth of the French river St. Lawrence. On the whole the main feature of the period is the systematic attempt of the French, under Colbert's guidance, to secure colonial supremacy: this received a serious check at the Treaty of Utrecht. The minor maps illustrate (**Plate 49***b*) the search for the N.W. passage, which is the romance of exploration during the late sixteenth and early seventeenth century: the story is carried down to the present day; and (**Plate 49***c* and *d*) the Spice Islands, which were at the beginning of the seventeenth century the centre of the most envied trade of the world, and for the control of which strife raged between the Portuguese, the English and the Dutch.

The fifth map (**Plate 50**) illustrates especially the duel between France and England for the control of colonies in the West and trade in the East which occupied the first half of the eighteenth century, and was the outcome of the vast importance now attached to these matters: the mania of speculation which was caused by the exaggerated notions of the wealth to be made from colonial trade is another evidence of the preoccupation of this period with colonial matters, and showed itself in Law's schemes in France and the South Sea Bubble in England. The chief fields of this struggle were (*a*) North America (*cf.* **Plate 55**); (*b*) India, where trade rivalry brought on territorial ambitions (*cf.* **Plate 61***a*); (*c*) the West Indies, to which many attached greater importance than to any of the other fields owing to the value of the trade in sugar, tobacco and cotton, then almost exclusively derived from the W. Indies (*cf.* **Plate 53**); (*d*) West Africa, where all nations wanted to control good slaving centres (*cf.* **Plate 64***c*). In all these the Seven Years' War gave England the upper hand, and she emerged at the Peace of Paris the first colonising power of the world. But though the

rivalry of France and England is the main feature of the period, the eagerness of other nations to share in colonial trade should be noted. Sweden, Denmark, Austria and Prussia all appeared as ineffective competitors, especially in the W. Indies, W. Africa and India. The two small maps illustrate the rapidly improving accuracy of geographical knowledge which resulted from this keen interest in the non-European world. Homan's map, 1716, is still at fault as to N.W. America, N.E. Asia and the Australasian region. These defects almost disappear in D'Anville's map, at the end of the period. The shape of the main land-masses of the world was now determined. It remained only to explore (1) the Pacific, chiefly the work of Captain Cook, whose voyages are shown in the main map; (2) the interior of Africa, Australia and (in part) S. America, which were to be reserved for the nineteenth century; and (3) the Polar regions (*see* **Plate 51***b*, *c*).

The sixth map (**Plate 51**) shows the effects of the Revolutionary period upon the colonial possessions of the European powers. Three main features stand forth: (1) the revolt of the older colonies—the United States from England, the whole of the Spanish settlements in Central and South America (except Cuba and Porto Rico) from Spain; Brazil from Portugal. (2) The conditions of the Revolutionary Wars have left the colonies and possessions of all powers at the mercy of England, with her dominant navy. The Dutch, in forced alliance with France, especially suffered, losing to England Cape Colony, Ceylon and the Straits Settlements. It was mainly in this period that the widely scattered forts and trading-stations possessed by England were acquired, especially on the route to India. (3) Fear of Napoleon forced the English into that rapid expansion which, under Wellesley, turned "the British Empire *in* India into the British Empire *of* India" (*cf.* **Plate 61***c*). At the same time the settlement of Australia was begun. The smaller maps show (1) the history of polar exploration to the present day, and (2) the commercial unification of Germany, which was in the next period to add a formidable competitor to the older colonising powers.

The seventh map (**Plate 52**) shows the distribution of the world at the present day. The nineteenth century falls into two main periods. (1) From 1815 to 1870, the European powers being occupied with wars and revolutions, paid little attention to colonies; the English monopoly therefore continued, and the British Empire expanded in a haphazard way in many fields. (2) From 1870 onwards, Europe, free from revolutions, looked beyond her own limits and there began a feverish rush for colonies, especially in Africa. Other features of the period are (1) the declared intention of the United States to prevent European aggression in America; (2) the beginning of American colonial ambitions; (3) the awakening of the Eastern nations. The smaller maps illustrate in detail the two most important wars of this period, the Franco-German war, which brought to an end the era of revolution in Europe and heralded the appearance of Germany as a consolidated world-power; and the Russo-Japanese war which not only checked the expansion of Russia, but put a limit to the field of the colonial rivalry of the powers.

The West Indies and Central America (Plate 53).—The West Indies and

Central America were the field of the rivalry of all the maritime nations from the middle of the sixteenth to the beginning of the nineteenth century. The confusing changes in ownership of the lesser islands, at first chiefly haunted by buccaneers, are shown in detail in the larger map, while the smaller maps illustrate the position of the various competing powers at intervals of about a century. The history of the Spanish Empire is also partially illustrated. For South America see **Plate 58.**

The European Nations in North America (Plates 54 and 55).—These two plates illustrate the colonisation of North America, the rivalry of England and France, and the establishment of the United States. The two maps should be used in conjunction, in order that the influence of physical features, which is nowhere more clearly demonstrable, may be fully grasped by the student. Five nations took part in the colonisation of N. America during the first half of the seventeenth century. The *Spanish* settlements in Florida and Texas were, however, essentially an extension of their dominion in the West Indies and Central America, and as they exercised no material influence upon the other settlements, they may be disregarded. The *English* settlements fell into two distinct blocks, (*a*) the Southern Colonies of Virginia (1607) and Maryland (1634) surrounding and made accessible by the branching waters of Chesapeake Bay and its navigable rivers, to which later the Carolinas and Georgias were added, and (*b*) the sporadic but homogeneous group of the New England colonies, (1620 onwards, *see* **54***b*), which before the middle of the century had been consolidated into the four main states of Massachusetts (with Plymouth and Maine), Rhode Island, Connecticut and New Hampshire. Both of these groups were essentially coastal in character, and though the settlers were numerous they were deterred from expanding far westwards by the barrier of the mountain ranges which run parallel with the Atlantic coast. Between these two groups of English colonies the *Dutch* planted themselves at the mouth of the Hudson, and the *Swedes* (later conquered by the Dutch) at the mouth of the Delaware (*see* **54***c*). The Dutch especially showed great insight in their choice of a site, since the valley of the Hudson, together with its tributary the Mohawk, formed the only effective gaps in the trackless hills and woods which cut off the coastlands from the interior. Accordingly the conquest of the Dutch territories by the English (1664) was essential to the consolidation of the English colonies. Even then, however, the English settlers had no very effective route to the central plain, because the Iroquois, the most warlike and best organised of Indian tribes, lay across the Mohawk valley, while the main Hudson valley with Lake Champlain, though forming an all but continuous waterway to the North, led only to the centre of the French settlements on the St. Lawrence. The *French* like the English settled in two distinct areas, but in their case these areas were not divided by the settlements of any other European power. Acadia (1604) and its dependencies formed a coastal colony, and as such was engaged in frequent conflict with the New Englanders by whom it was eventually conquered (1711). The two nations also found themselves in rivalry in Newfoundland, where both had settlements, for the exploitation of the fisheries. But the

main French settlements, on both banks of the St. Lawrence from the Saguenay to the Ottawa, had for the most part to deal only with native neighbours, especially the formidable Iroquois. The St. Lawrence River forms a very effective breach in the mountain barrier which checked the advance of the English. It naturally led the French settlers on to the Great Lakes, which Champlain explored as early as 1615, and whose area was soon dotted with French trading and mission centres. From the lakes French explorers and missionaries were naturally led on to explore the great rivers of the central plain ; Père Marquette and La Salle traced the course of the Ohio and Mississippi ; a new French settlement was planted at the mouth of the Mississippi (1717) and during the first half of the eighteenth century, despite their small numbers in comparison with the English, the French had established trading and mission stations on the eastern half of the Mississippi valley (*see* **Plate 55**) and claimed the right of excluding the English from this region. This state of affairs, essentially the product of geographical facts, inevitably brought about conflict between the two nations, which in the Seven Years' War ended in the acquisition of all the French lands and claims by the English.

In this war (*see* **Plate 55**) geographical facts were again the determining factors. The English attacks on the French colonies, successful or unsuccessful, were all directed along three main lines : (*a*) over the Alleghanies to the French settlements on the Ohio, especially Fort Duquesne ; (*b*) up the Hudson waterway by Lake Champlain (where Crown Point and Ticonderoga formed the chief centres of war) and along the Mohawk Valley to the Lakes (*see* **Plate 56***a*) ; (*c*) up the river St. Lawrence, where Louisburg and Quebec (**55***a*) formed the main French points of resistance. The conquest of Canada was soon followed by the revolt of the original English colonies. In the course of the War of Independence the Hudson waterway again plays a principal part (*a*) in the American attack on Canada, (*b*) in the English attempt (1777) to isolate New England by a combined movement from Canada and New York. Apart from this the main fields of this war were (*a*) Boston (**55***b*), (*b*) the " middle states," and (*c*) the Carolinas and Southern Virginia, where the last serious campaigns of the war were fought. The main field of the Revolutionary war, and the central area of the Seven Years' War, is treated on a larger scale in **Plate 56**. In both **Plate 54** and **Plate 55** the inland boundaries of the colonies are left (as they were in fact) undefined.

Military History of the United States (Plate 56).—This plate is intended to illustrate the three great wars in the history of English-speaking America. One of the chief fields both of the Seven Years' War and of the War of Independence was the great Hudson water-way, which is figured in Map *a* ; the same map also shows the central field of the War of Independence. On the geographical features of these wars *see* note on **Plates 54** and **55.** The Civil War falls into three main phases (1) the Naval War, including the blockade of the southern ports and Farragut's attack upon the lower Mississippi ; (2) the Virginia campaign, in which from beginning to end of the war the main armies on both sides were engaged ; (3) the war in Kentucky and Tennessee, which was linked with (2) by the campaigns in

the Alleghany valleys and by Sherman's march through Georgia. All three phases are, however, so much intertwined that they are best illustrated in a single map (Map *b*). The hard fighting of the last stages of the war in Southern Virginia are illustrated on a larger scale in Map *c*.

The Growth of Canada and the United States (Plate 57).—This map illustrates the political development of North America since 1782. In British North America the main stages in the organisation of the dominion were as follows :—(1) From 1793 Upper and Lower Canada were separate colonies, while Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island and Newfoundland formed distinct states ; (2) in 1841 Upper and Lower Canada were united ; (3) in 1867 the Dominion was formed, including the two Canadas, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick ; (4) this was followed by the opening out of the west by the Canadian-Pacific Railway, the addition of British Columbia to the Dominion (1871), and the organisation of the western territories, which in 1905 became states of the Dominion. Note both in Canada and the United States the vital importance of the great trans-continental railways in binding together these vast territories ; until the age of railways, democratic communities on so vast a scale would have been impossible. Note the boundary questions (*a*) in Maine, (*b*) in Oregon, settled at a time when all parties in England anticipated the early union of Canada with the United States. In Maine, a wedge of foreign territory is thrust almost to the St. Lawrence, and has to be crossed by the chief railway. In the United States note that the settlement of the territory west of the Alleghanies did not begin until after the American Revolution (*cf.* dates of Ohio, Kentucky, etc.). Note also the importance of the Louisiana purchase ; and the conquest of the rest of American territory from the Spanish-American power of Mexico.

South America (Plate 58).—There are two main periods of interest in the history of South America, separated by a long period with no features of great interest. The *first* period is that of conquest and settlement by the Spaniards and the Portuguese and in a less degree by the Dutch, English and French, which occupies the sixteenth and the first part of the seventeenth centuries. This is illustrated by the first map. Note (1) the organisation of the Spanish Empire : Panama, Peru, Chile and the Argentine all falling under the viceroyalty of Peru, whose most important region was the mining district of Upper Peru (mod. Bolivia) ; while New Granada, Caracas (Venezuela) and generally the Spanish main were attached to the governorship of Hispaniola. Note (2) that the Portuguese settlement of Brazil, at first purely coastal in character, was effected by grants of large feudal lordships, which are indicated on the map. The *second* period is that of the establishment of a series of independent states, which was the indirect outcome of the French Revolution. This period, and the Wars of Liberation, in which Bolivar was the outstanding figure, are illustrated in the second Map.

Asia under the Mongols (Plates 59 and 60).—Drawn to the same scale, these two plates form a continuous map of Southern and Central Asia. Apart from the raid of Alexander the Great to the Indus, the frequent wars

of the Roman Empire with the Persians and the long struggle against the Saracens and Seljuk Turks (which never extended further East than Syria, *see* **Plate 29**), the western nations of Europe never had effective contact with, or knowledge of, Asia until the rise of the great Mongol empire in the thirteenth century; China and India being practically unknown to Europe, except in so far as their products were transmitted by Arab traders on the Indian Ocean, or the land-routes of trade across Central Asia. These routes are shown on Plates 59 and 60. The Mongolian family of peoples are known to have extended, at any rate since the beginning of the Christian era, from Manchuria and the Pacific to the Baltic and Black Seas. Though there were wide differences of language among them, they were never very clearly divided into distinct races, but being mostly nomadic in their customs, shifted and melted readily into one another. From this vague and shifting mass of peoples, whom the European nations have at various times known as Scythians, Huns, Turks, Tartars, Mongols, etc., successive offshoots had from time to time raided and terrorised Europe—the Huns of Attila, the Avars, the Bulgarians, the Magyars all being branches of this same wide-spreading Asiatic stock; as were the various bands of Turks who from the ninth century onwards raided and controlled the greater part of the once consolidated Saracen empire. At the beginning of the thirteenth century a group of tribes in modern Mongolia, consolidated under the rule of a single prince whose centre was at Karakorum, began to conquer and assimilate the kindred races to the south and east of them. In the absence of any strongly felt racial distinctions the task proved an easy one. Under the captaincy of a great military genius who assumed the title of Zenghis Khan (Illustrious King) the Mongol empire had before 1260 not only united all the branches of the wide-spreading Mongol race, but had conquered Persia and the whole of China (the capital of the empire being thenceforward fixed at Peking) and, gathering up the Mongolian tribes of southern Russia, had reduced the divided Russian states to subjection (1241–2, *cf.* note on **Plate 27**). For convenience of administration this unwieldy empire was divided among the sons of Zenghis Khan. But these kingdoms (1, Kipchak=the "Golden Horde" of S. Russia; 2, Djagatai=Turkestan, Bokhara, Samarkand, etc.; 3, Ilkhan=Persia and Armenia) continued during the thirteenth century to recognise the suzerainty of the main kingdom of Mongolia and China under Kubla Khan. In the fourteenth century this vast empire, however, rapidly broke into fragments. China was lost in 1368; the more strictly Mongol regions first became independent and then broke into innumerable fragments. This rendered possible the rise of the Ottoman Turks in Asia Minor (*cf.* **Plate 25***b*). On the ruins of the Mongol Empire in Central and S.W. Asia a new adventurer, Timur (Tamurlane) at the end of the fourteenth century built up another short-lived empire, which stretched from the Hindu Kush to the Euphrates, threatened to destroy the power of the Ottomans, and gravely alarmed Europe.

The vast empire of Zenghis Khan and his successors attracted the attention of Europe, and led to a series of remarkable journeys of exploration. The chief of these were those of Rubruquis (Ambassador of St. Louis to Zenghis Khan, 1253–4), Carpini (Ambassador from the Pope 1246–7) and

above all the Genoese merchants, the Poli, who were taken into the service of the Mongol Emperors, and made a remarkable series of journeys. Marco Polo's routes are indicated on the map.

India, protected by the Himalayan rampart, was all but unaffected by the vast power of Zenghis Khan. The early history of India is the story of a succession of invasions from the N.W. The most important of these during the middle ages were those of the Afghans, which began in the eleventh century; the Afghan power reached its height at the beginning of the fourteenth century, when it controlled practically the whole of India. But this ascendancy was short-lived. The Afghan power, by the end of the century, had shrunk to the N.W. and in 1398 this remaining region was subjugated by Timur. Meanwhile a group of independent states had formed themselves in the Deccan. This is the state of affairs shown in the main map.

The inset map (**59***a*) shows the condition of India at the time of the first English voyages to Surat and other ports. The chief feature is the rise of the great Mogul empire, the most solid power which India had yet seen, founded by Baber King of Kabul, in the first part of the sixteenth century, and organised by the great Akbar in the second half of the same century. Southern India, to which the operations of the European traders were at first mainly confined, continued to be divided among a group of minor states.

The Growth of British Power in India (Plate 61).—Illustrates in detail the growth of the British power in India down to the close of the governor-generalship of Wellesley. The first map deals with the beginnings of British power under Clive and Warren Hastings; the second with the establishment of British supremacy in India. The influence of physical conformation upon history is very clearly marked in the case of India, and the student should study these maps in conjunction with the physical map, **Plate 59.** Note (1) that the Deccan or Southern Peninsula is naturally distinct, and has a different history, from the Gangetic Valley; hence the growth of British power in the Carnatic is largely a separate story from that of the British power in Bengal, the Governors of Madras being chiefly concerned with the great powers of the Coastal Plain and Southern Uplands—the Carnatic, Mysore and Hyderabad; while the Governor of Calcutta was concerned with the Nabobs of Bengal and Oudh and the Great Mogul at Delhi. But note (2) that the remarkable geographical position of the Marathas, stretching across India between these two regions, gives a unity to Indian History after their rise, because every power was necessarily brought into relations with them. Hence the Marathas were the most dangerous foes of the British in India. And note (3) that the unity of the scattered British territories in the earlier period was only secured by control of the sea; and that as a consequence of this, early British expansion is mainly aimed at securing the control of the coast line. It is not till the time of Wellesley that this policy is exchanged for one of territorial supremacy. His work falls into three stages: (1) the assumption of control over the Deccan by the annexation of the Carnatic and of the greater part of Mysore, and the reduction of the rest of Mysore and of the Nizam to

subsidiary alliance; (2) the assumption of control over the Ganges valley by the annexation of the Doab and the reduction of Oudh and the Mogul to dependence; (3) the attempt to subjugate the Marathas, which was stopped when half achieved and had to be completed by Lord Hastings (*see* **Plate 62**).

India in 1858 (Plate 62).—The chief features of the advance of the British power in India during the nineteenth century are: (1) the final subjugation of the Marathas (1817–18); (2) the assumption of direct rule in a number of inland states, including Mysore, Nagpur, Oudh, Sattara, etc.; (3) a rapid advance towards a defensible natural frontier on the N.W. in the Sind War (1843) and the Sikh War (1845–6 and 1848–9); and (4) the conquest of Burma on the East. The map also illustrates the Mutiny.

Coloured, as it is, according to the dates of acquisition of the various areas, this map suggests certain broad aspects of the British ascendancy in India which are worth noting. It shows that the English first acquired control over the greater part of the coast, so as to prevent the access of other powers coming by the sea, and of the Gangetic plain from which the main wealth of India is derived. In the second stage the control of the coast-line was completed, and a wedge of British territory was thrust into the centre of the peninsula, dividing the native states which at the beginning of the nineteenth century occupied the bulk of this area. In the third stage the north-western frontier was secured against possible invaders by land, and a rapid expansion also took place towards the north-east. This sequence was the result, not so much of deliberate plan, as of the pressure of events, but it is none the less important to realize.

The European Powers in Asia during the Nineteenth Century (Plate 63).—The main features illustrated by this map are the development of the gigantic Asiatic Empire of Russia, its relations with the British Empire in India and with the Oriental powers, Japan and China, and the imperial or commercial ambitions of other powers, notably France in Tong-king, the United States in the Philippine Islands, and Germany in the Euphrates Valley. The growth of the Asiatic Empire in Russia, falls into two main and widely separated periods. In 1581 the conquest of Siberia began, under Yermak, a leader of the Cossacks of the Don. Within the next sixty years Russian settlers had spread over the whole of Siberia as far as the Pacific, and had subjugated the scattered tribes which occupied this vast region. At the end of the seventeenth century Kamchatka was occupied, and the Kurile Islands between 1710 and 1720. This rapid process of occupation was the spontaneous work of settlers, not the result of conquest by the forces of the Russian state. Organised government followed later. In 1708 Siberia was formed into a distinct government, with its capital at Tobolsk: it then included twenty-six towns. Under Catherine II. it was divided into three governments. The Russian conquest of Central Asia came much later, being the work of the nineteenth century. It was achieved deliberately and by military action, and was not followed by any considerable settlement of European Russians in the conquered regions. Russian ambitions towards the S.E. may be said to begin with Alexander I., who discussed with Napoleon the project of a combined Franco-Russian advance

on India across Central Asia. From this moment the advance of the Russians towards the S.E. was identified in the minds of British statesmen with danger to the Indian Empire. This danger seemed to threaten in two directions, (*a*) Russian advance through the Caucasus and across the Caspian Sea, involving pressure on Persia; (*b*) Russian advance through Turkestan, involving pressure on Afghanistan. The stages in these two lines of advance are shown on the map. They exercised the most material influence upon the concurrent advance of the English in India towards a defensible mountain frontier on the N.W., and upon the diplomatic relations of British India with Afghanistan and Persia. The final settlement of the Afghan boundary question in the Pamirs was not reached till 1898; the question had brought the two Empires to the verge of war in 1876. The final settlement of the Russo-British rivalry in Persia was attained by the delimitation of spheres of influence in that country in 1907. It should be noted that the periods of Russian advance in Central Asia correspond to the periods of reaction in the domestic politics of Russia. Russia reforming herself is European; Russia in reaction is Asiatic. For the Russo-Japanese war, the final check to Russian advance in the Far East, *see* **Plate 52***b*. Apart from the Russo-British rivalry, the main features illustrated by **Plate 63** are (1) the pressure of European powers upon China, represented by the Chinese wars and the opening of "treaty ports" in 1842 and 1858, the development of the French power in Indo-China, and the establishment of English, German and Russian stations on the Yellow Sea; (2) the emergence of Japan as an aggressive power, by the acquisition of Formosa (1895) from China, the Kurile Islands and South Sakhalin from Russia (1905), and the establishment of a protectorate over Corea; (3) the vital importance of railway schemes for the opening up of Asiatic regions to European trade and influence; note especially the Trans-Siberian railway and the Russian railways in Central Asia, the railways across Asia Minor, down the Euphrates, and through Syria to Mecca. It is upon the control of these and other strategically or commercially important lines of communication that the latest phase of European rivalry especially turns, and the field of this rivalry is Asia.

The Europeanisation of Africa (Plate 64).—Though the coast of Africa was fully known before that of any other part of the world outside of Europe, this continent, as a whole, was the last to be brought under European influence or control. This was because the coast, everywhere inhospitable, is everywhere backed either by deserts or by malarious jungle; while all the great rivers (except the Nile) were long prevented from being made highways to the inland plateau by falls near their mouths, where they descend from the plateau, and by the malarious character of their lower reaches; Africa is like a nut with a very hard kernel, and was neglected so long as more easily accessible lands were available to the ambitions of colonising nations. Towards the end of the nineteenth century when Europe had come to an end of revolutionary changes after the Franco-German War, the suddenly awakened colonial ambitions of the powers found Africa almost the only unappropriated region of the world. Hence the rapidity with which it was partitioned amongst them, which (with

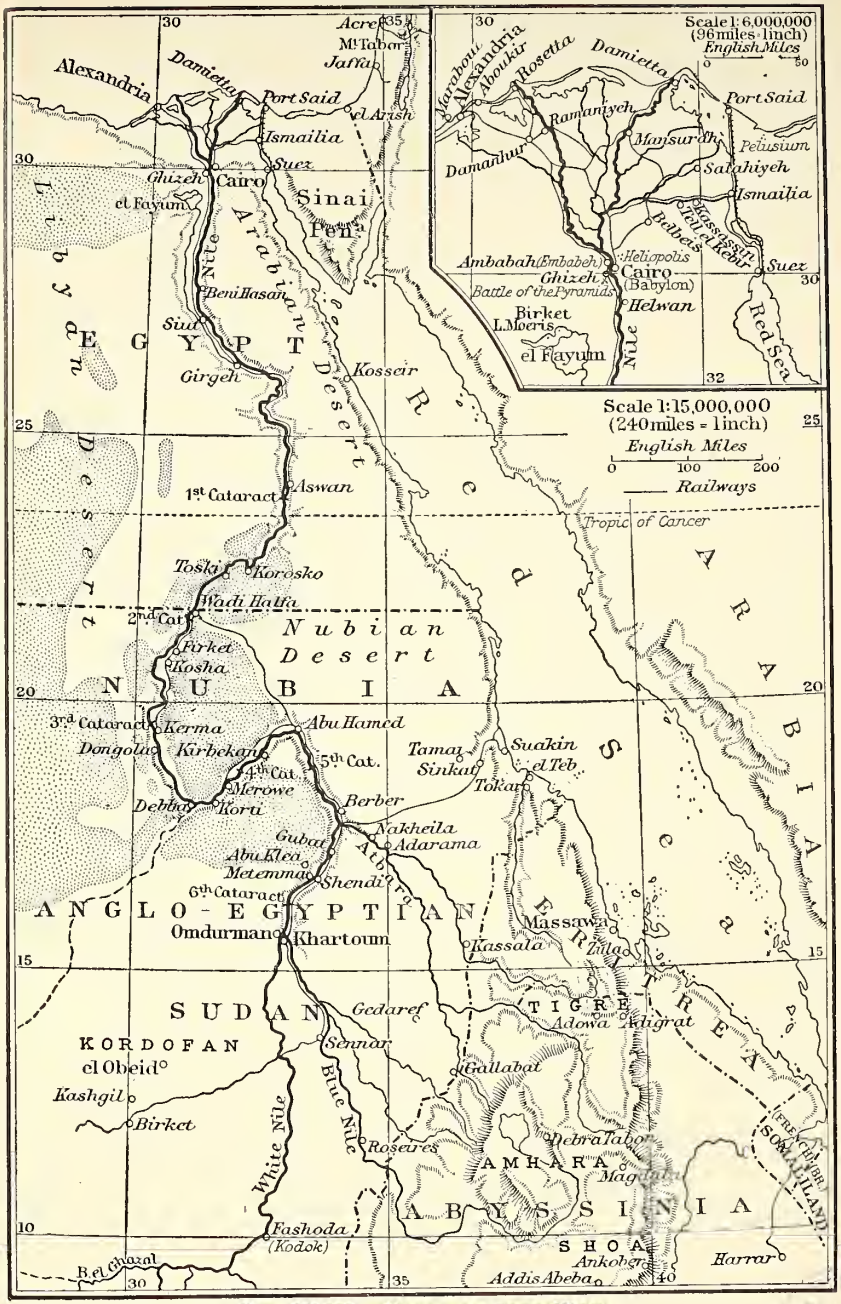


FIG. XLIII.—EGYPT AND THE NILE.

the aid of gradations of colour according to date) is shown in Map (*a*). In **64** (*c*)—West Africa—note the numerous settlements of the various European powers along the coast of W. Africa during the eighteenth century, chiefly for the purposes of the slave-trade: not only Portuguese, Dutch, French, and English, but Danes and Prussians founded trading stations, which frequently changed hands, and in no case carried with them extended territorial power. Note the recently established predominance of France: Great Britain, however, controlling two of the three most valuable river entries into the inland regions. In **64** (*b*)—Cape Colony—note the struggles on the eastern boundary against the Kaffirs, and the slow advance of the frontier in that direction—this being the only point at which the English, for a long time, came in contact with warlike native powers. The divisions shown on this map are those of the Dutch at the time of the English conquest, and give some indication of the extent of the settlement at that date. The great variation in the size of the provinces is instructive, the wealth and population of each province being roughly in inverse proportion to its size. **64** (*d*)—Physical—illustrates, with dates, the growth of British power in S. Africa. **64** (*e*) gives a fuller treatment of Natal, the main clash-point between the English, the Dutch and the most formidable native tribes. Note the repeated attempts of the Boers to control the access to the coast in this direction, first by their early settlements, then in the '80's by the expansion of the New Republic at the expense of the Zulus. The only region of Africa that has played a material part in the history of the world is Egypt; being easily entered by the Nile it has always been linked with the civilization of the Mediterranean. The geography of Egypt is so simple, consisting merely of a long river valley running through the desert, that it is possible to illustrate it adequately by a black and white map. Accordingly it is shown in Fig. XLIII, which will serve to illustrate alike the age of the Crusades, the Napoleonic war, Mohemet Ali and the troubles of the nineteenth century, and finally the British occupation.

The Exploration and Settlement of Australasia (Plate 65).—"Happy is the nation which has no history," and there is no important region of the world which has been more free from the misfortune of having a history than Australasia. Its chief features of interest are economic and constitutional, and these themes do not lend themselves to cartographical illustration. Of the three maps on this plate the first, which is coloured physically, shows Australasia as a whole, brings out the relation between the main continent, the Malay Archipelago and the Pacific Islands, and shows the principal routes of maritime exploration. For the early Dutch explorations *cf* **Plate 48** and **48***b*. The second map, **65***b*, illustrates the main journeys of exploration within the arid interior of Australia, the routes of sixteen explorers being shown; and the map is coloured to show the dates of settlement of various parts of the continent. The third map, **65***c*, illustrates the colonisation of New Zealand and the Maori wars.

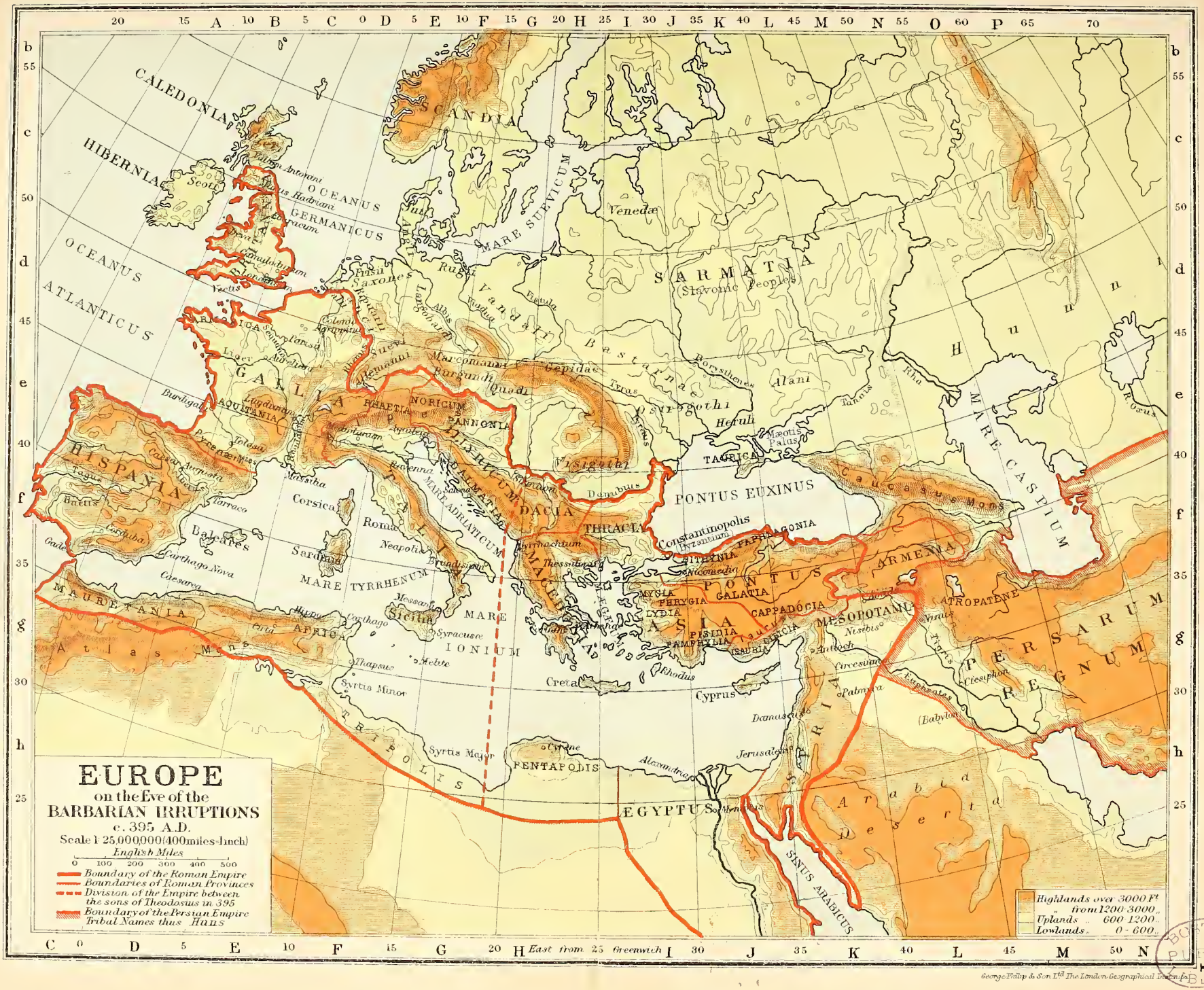
MAPS

I. Europe 1–13

II. Principal States of Europe 14–29

III. British Isles 30–45

IV. Europeanisation of the World 46–65


EUROPE
on the Eve of the
BARBARIAN IRRUPTIONS
c. 395 A.D.
Scale 1: 25,000,000 (400 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Boundary of the Roman Empire
Boundaries of Roman Provinces
Division of the Empire between the sons of Theodosius in 395
Boundary of the Persian Empire
Tribal Names thus Huns
Highlands over 3000 Ft.
" from 1200-3000 "
Uplands 600-1200 "
Lowlands 0-600 "
East from Greenwich
CALEDONIA
HIBERNIA
OCEANUS ATLANTICUS
OCEANUS GERMANICUS
SCANDIA
MARE SUEVICUM
Venedæ
SARMATIA
(Slavonic Peoples)
GALLIA
HISPANIA
MARE TYRRHENUM
MARE ADRIATICUM
ITALIA
SICILIA
MARE IONIUM
MAURETANIA
AFRICA
Atlas Mts.
PONTUS EUXINUS
MARE CASPIUM
THRACIA
DACIA
MACEDONIA
ACHAIA
ASIA
PONTUS
ARMENIA
MESOPOTAMIA
PERSARUM REGNUM
ATROPATENE
Cyprus
Creta
Rhodus
EGYPTUS
TRIPOLIS
PENTAPOLIS
SYRIA
Arabia Deserta
SINUS ARABICUS
Hunni
Alani
Goths
Vandali
Burgundi
Quadi
Marcomanni
Gepidæ
Suevi
Saxones
Franci
Alamanni
Longobardi
Rugi
Heruli
Tagrica
Caucasus Mons
Rha
Borysthenes
Tanais
Danubius
Rhenus
Tigris
Euphrates
Nilus
Jordan
Constantinopolis (Byzantium)
Nicomedia
Thessalonica
Carthago Nova
Carthago
Syracuse
Neapolis
Roma
Corsica
Sardinia
Baleares
Gades
Tarraco
Caesarea
Hippo
Utica
Thapsus
Syrtis Minor
Syrtis Major
Cyrene
Alexandria
Jerusalem
Damascus
Palmyra
Antioch
Ctesiphon
(Babylon)
Circesium
Nisibis
Virtus
Ratisbon
Augsburg
Milan
Ravenna
Aquileia
Sirmium
Thessalonica
Byzantium
Nicomedia
Nicæa
Ancyra
Tarsus
Iconium
Seleucia
Antioch
Tyre
Jerusalem
Damascus
Palmyra
Edessa
Nisibis
Ctesiphon
(Babylon)
Circesium
Virtus
Tigris
Euphrates
Nilus
Jordan
Rhenus
Danubius
Tanais
Borysthenes
Rha
Oxus
Caucasus Mons
Mæotis Palus
Rubi Vandali
Asdingi
Lacringi
Hasdingi
Silingi
Vandali
Basilinae
Visigothi
Ostrogothi
Alani
Hunni
Taurus
Amanus
Lebanon
Antilibanus
Hermon
Sinai
Pyrenæi Montes
Alpes Cottiæ
Alpes Maritimæ
Alpes Penninæ
Alpes Graiæ
Alpes Rhæticæ
Alpes Noricæ
Alpes Julia
Alpes Dinaricæ
Alpes Atlas Mts.
Scotti
Picti
Britones
Saxones
Franci
Alamanni
Burgundi
Quadi
Marcomanni
Gepidæ
Suevi
Longobardi
Rugi
Heruli
Tagrica
Alani
Hunni
Goths
Vandali
Basilinae
Visigothi
Ostrogothi
Caledonia
Hibernia
Oceanus Atlanticus
Oceanus Germanicus
Scandia
Mare Suevicum
Venedæ
Sarmatia
Gallia
Hispania
Mare Tyrrhenum
Mare Adriaticum
Italia
Sicilia
Mare Ionium
Mauretania
Africa
Pontus Euxinus
Mare Caspium
Thracia
Dacia
Macedonia
Achaia
Asia
Pontus
Armenia
Mesopotamia
Persarum Regnum
Atropatene
Cyprus
Creta
Rhodus
Egyptus
Tripolis
Pentapolis
Syria
Arabia Deserta
Sinus Arabicus
Aquitania
Noricum
Rhætia
Pannonia
Illyricum
Dalmatia
Thracia
Bithynia
Paphlagonia
Galatia
Cappadocia
Lydia
Mysia
Phrygia
Pisidia
Pamphylia
Isauria
Cilicia
Lycaonia
Galatia
Cappadocia
Mesopotamia
Armenia
Pontus
Bithynia
Paphlagonia
Thracia
Dacia
Macedonia
Achaia
Asia
Pontus
Armenia
Mesopotamia
Persarum Regnum
Atropatene
Cyprus
Creta
Rhodus
Egyptus
Tripolis
Pentapolis
Syria
Arabia Deserta
Sinus Arabicus
Aquitania
Noricum
Rhætia
Pannonia
Illyricum
Dalmatia
Thracia
Bithynia
Paphlagonia
Galatia
Cappadocia
Lydia
Mysia
Phrygia
Pisidia
Pamphylia
Isauria
Cilicia
Lycaonia
Galatia
Cappadocia
Mesopotamia
Armenia
Pontus
Bithynia
Paphlagonia
Thracia
Dacia
Macedonia
Achaia
Asia
Pontus
Armenia
Mesopotamia
Persarum Regnum
Atropatene
Cyprus
Creta
Rhodus
Egyptus
Tripolis
Pentapolis
Syria
Arabia Deserta
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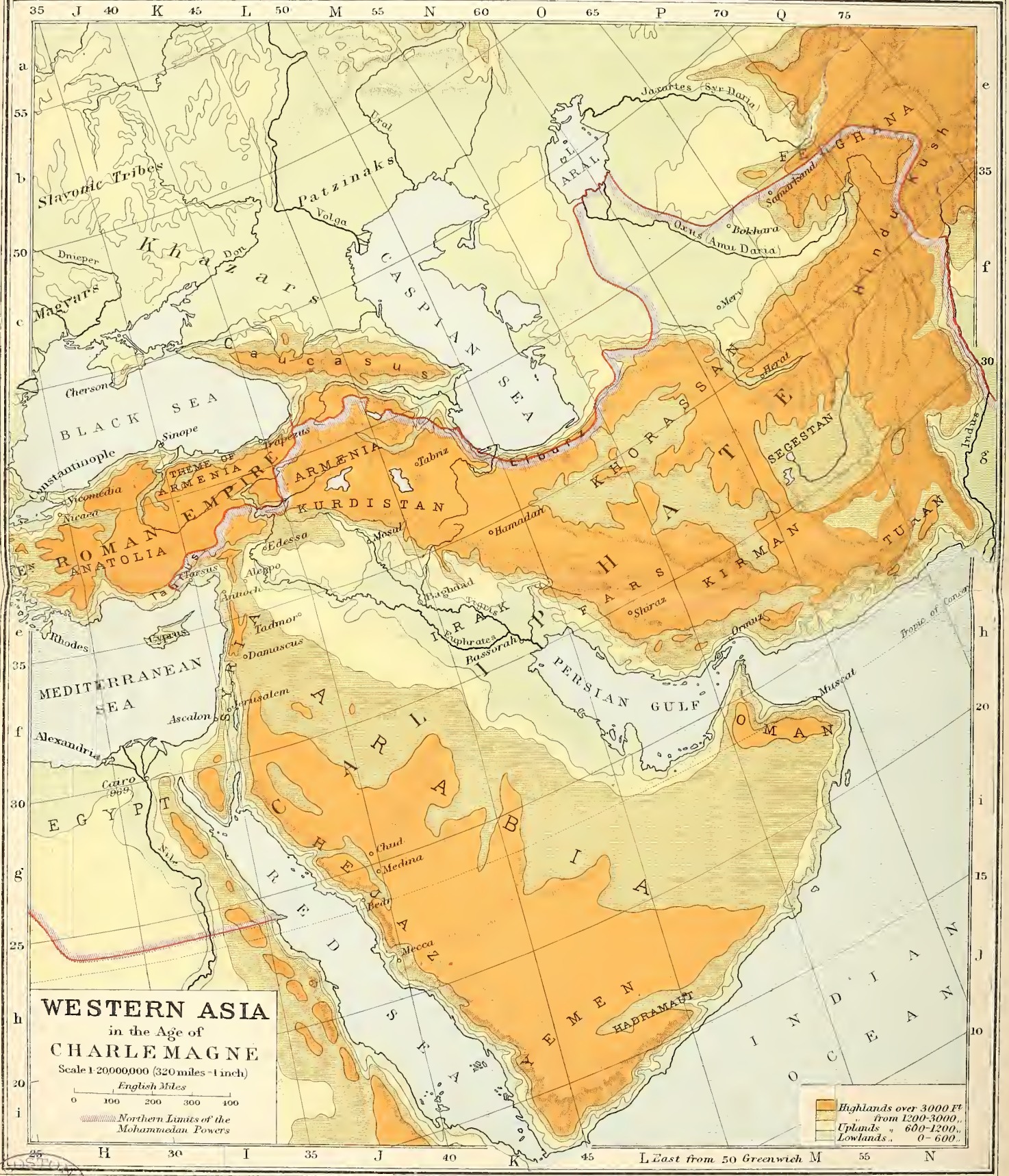




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HISTORY PUBLIC LIBRARY

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EUROPE
c. 1360
Scale 1:20,000,000 (320 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400
Boundary of the Holy Roman Empire
a Lands of the Hapsburgs
b " " House of Bohemia & Luxemburg
c Eastern Empire
Dominions of Edward III in 1360
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BLACK SEA
SWEDEN
NORWAY
FINLAND
RUSSIAN STATES
PRINCIPALITY OF MOSCOW
Golden Horde (Tartars)
LITHUANIA
VOLHYNIA
UKRAINE
PODOLIA
POLAND
KINGDOM OF
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
HUNGARY
MOLDAVIA
TRANSYLVANIA
WALLACHIA (To Hungary 1368)
AUSTRIA
BAVARIA
BRANDENBURG (1373)
LUSATIA
SILESIA
HOLLAND
BRABANT
LUXEMBURG
ROMAN EMPIRE
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
DUCHY OF AQUITAINE
BRITTANY
KINGDOM OF CASTILE
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
KINGDOM OF GRANADA
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
KINGDOM OF SICILY
PAPAL STATES
LANDS OF VISCONTI
SAVOY
CROATIA
BOSNIA
SERVIA
BULGARIA
ALBANIAN PRINCIPALITY
LATIN EMPIRE
Ottoman Turks
Seljuk Turks (Eight Emirates)
KINGDOM OF CYPRUS
COUNTY OF CEPHALONIA
PRINCIPALITY OF ACHAIA
MAMELUKE SULTAN
GEORGIA
Caucasus
Crete (to Venice)
Corsica (to Genoa)
Sardinia (to Aragon)
Balearic Is (to Aragon)
Shetland Is (to Norway)
Orkney Is (to Norway)
Faroes Is (to Norway)
IRELAND
SCOTLAND
ENGLAND
WALES
DENMARK
GOTHLAND
ESTHONIA
LIVONIA
KNIGHTS TEUTONIC
Stockholm
Copenhagen
Bergen
Riga
Königsberg
Novgorod
Smolensk
Moscow
Volga
Don
Dnieper
Dniester
Vienna
Budapest
Prague
Cologne
Paris
Rouen
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Marseilles
Barcelona
Lisbon
Cadiz
Seville
Granada
Naples
Rome
Florence
Venice
Genoa
Milan
Trent
Trieste
Belgrade
Constantinople
Adrianople
Nicaea
Brusa
Smyrna
Sinope
Trebizond
Chersonese
Tauris
Tripoli
Malta
Rhodes
Candia
Tyre
Acre
Jerusalem
Damascus
Antioch
Alexandria
Cairo
Nile
Euphrates
Tigris
Turkomans
Messina
Palermo
Salerno
Corfu (to Naples)
Thessalonica
Aragon
Leon
Portugal
Navarre
Ireland
Dublin
Waterford
Wexford
Limerick
Kinsale
Cork
Galway
Sligo
Londonderry
Belfast
Aberdeen
Edinburgh
Berwick
Stirling
Carlisle
Lancaster
Liverpool
Chester
Shrewsbury
Worcester
Oxford
London
Canterbury
Norwich
Kings Lynn
Sandwich
Winchester
Exeter
Plymouth
Pembroke
Bristol
Gloucester
Hereford
Coventry
Lincoln
York
Durham
Newcastle
Berwick
Stirling
Edinburgh
Aberdeen
Bruges
Ghent
Calais
Dieppe
Rouen
Channel Is
Brest
Nantes
Bayonne
Orleans
Tours
Poitiers
Limoges
Bordeaux
Rheims
Metz
Strasbourg
Augsburg
Munich
Ratisbon
Nuremberg
Wurtzburg
Frankfort
Treves
Mayence
Cologne
Aix
Liege
Utrecht
Amsterdam
Hamburg
Bremen
Lubeck
Stettin
Magdeburg
Leipzig
Dresden
Thorn
Posen
Warsaw
Lemberg
Cracow
Olmutz
Brunn
Linz
Salzburg
Innsbruck
Styria
Carinthia
Tyrol
Ofen
Drave
Save
Belgrade
Ragusa
Durazzo
Salonica
Corinth
Athens
Negropont
Lepanto
Modon
Coron
Candia
Rhodes
Cyprus
Tripoli
Alexandria
Cairo
Nile
Jerusalem
Damascus
Tyre
Acre
Antioch
Tripolis
Aleppo
Euphrates
Tigris
Mosul
Turkomans
Armenians
Georgia
Caucasus
Chersonese
Trebizond
Sinope
Brusa
Nicaea
Constantinople
Adrianople
Thessalonica
Aragon
Leon
Portugal
Navarre
Ireland
Dublin
Waterford
Wexford
Limerick
Kinsale
Cork
Galway
Sligo
Londonderry
Belfast
Aberdeen
Edinburgh
Berwick
Stirling
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Worcester
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Canterbury
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Kings Lynn
Sandwich
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Coventry
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Stirling
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Aberdeen
Bruges
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Orleans
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Ratisbon
Nuremberg
Wurtzburg
Frankfort
Treves
Mayence
Cologne
Aix
Liege
Utrecht
Amsterdam
Hamburg
Bremen
Lubeck
Stettin
Magdeburg
Leipzig
Dresden
Thorn
Posen
Warsaw
Lemberg
Cracow
Olmutz
Brunn
Linz
Salzburg
Innsbruck
Styria
Carinthia
Tyrol
Ofen
Drave
Save
Belgrade
Ragusa
Durazzo
Salonica
Corinth
Athens
Negropont
Lepanto
Modon
Coron
Candia
Rhodes
Cyprus
Tripoli
Alexandria
Cairo
Nile
Jerusalem
Damascus
Tyre
Acre
Antioch
Tripolis
Aleppo
Euphrates
Tigris
Mosul
Turkomans
Armenians
Georgia
Caucasus
Chersonese
Trebizond
Sinope
Brusa
Nicaea
Constantinople
Adrianople
Thessalonica
East from 15 Greenwich
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EUROPE
IN 1519
Scale 1:15,000,000 (240 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200 300
Boundary of the Holy Roman Empire
Dominions of the House of Habsburg
Brandenburg
Lands of the Union of Calmar
Church Lands
NORWAY
SWEDEN
DENMARK
FINLAND
ESTHONIA
LIVONIA
KURLAND
RUSSIA
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
ENGLAND
WALES
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BRITTANY
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
CASTILE
NAVARRE
ARAGON
CATALONIA
BRANDENBURG
SAXONY
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
SILESIA
POLAND
LITHUANIA
VOLHYNIA
PODOLIA
GALICIA
AUSTRIA
BAVARIA
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
MOLDAVIA
WALLACHIA
BOSNIA
SERVIA
BULGARIA
TURKISH EMPIRE
SWISS CONFEDERATION
SAVOY
MILAN
VENICE
FLORENCE
PAPAL STATES
NAPLES
SICILY (to Spain)
Corsica (to Genoa)
Sardinia (to Spain)
Balearic Is.
Majorca
Minorca
Ivica
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
ALBANIA SEA
SULTINATE OF ALGIERS
SULTINATE OF TUNIS
SULTINATE OF FEZ
Ceuta (Port.)
Malta (to Spain)
Crete (to Venice)
Cerigo I.
Rhodes (1522 Turkish)
Knights of St. John
Duchy of Naxos
Morea
Negropont
Lepanto
Corinth
Athens
Chios (to Genoa)
Smyrna
Constantinople
Adrianople
Philippopolis
Sofia
Belgrade
Danube
Save
Drave
Mohacs
Budapest
Vienna
Prague
Munich
Augsburg
Ratisbon
Salzburg
Grosswardein
Kolosvar
Galatz
Bucharest
Jassy
Lemberg
Dniester
Pruth
Bug
Dnieper
Kiev
Smolensk
Moscow
Novgorod
Volga
Memel
Konigsberg
Teutonic Order
Marienburg
Dantzic
Stralsund
Lubeck
Hamburg
Bremen
Amsterdam
Haarlem
Utrecht
Antwerp
Ghent
Calais
Paris
Rouen
Caudebec
Dieppe
Boulogne
Dunkirk
Cateau Cambresis
Crespi
Senlis
Ivry
Dreux
Mayenne
Marne
Reims
Soissons
Compiegne
Meaux
Fontainebleau
Orleans
Blois
Tours
Loire
Nantes
Brest
St. Pol de Leon
Channel Is.
Rochelle
Moncontour
Limoges
Angoulême
Jarnac
Bergerac
Cognac
Albret
Montauban
Montpellier
Carcassone
Narbonne
Perpignan
Marseilles
Aix
Nice
Arles
Avignon
Provence
Dauphine
Bresse
Bugey
Geneva
Basle
Berne
Zurich
Constance
Trent
Verona
Padua
Vicenza
Mantua
Parma
Modena
Ferrara
Bologna
Ancona
Urbino
Lucca
Pisa
Siena
Perugia
Assisi
Rome
Tiber
Benevento
Naples
Cosenza
Messina
Palermo
Catania
Syracuse
Trapani
Tripoli
Algiers
Oran
Biserta
Tunis
Cadiz
Seville
Cordova
Granada
Guadiana
Guadalquivir
Alicante
Valencia
Tarragona
Barcelona
Saragossa
Ebro
Pyrenees
Roussillon
Pau
Bearn
Pamplona
San Sebastian
Bayonne
Santiago
Corunna
Oporto
Braganza
Valladolid
Salamanca
Douro
Tagus
Lisbon
Algarve
Gibraltar
Strait of Gibraltar
Hebrides
Orkney Is.
Shetland Is.
Bergen
Stavanger
Upsala
Stockholm
Gotland
Oland
Calmar
Visby
Copenhagen
Elsinore
Schleswig
Holstein
Pomerania
Prussia
Livonia
Courland
Esthonia
Finland
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Finland
Gulf of Riga
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Lyons
Gulf of Genoa
Gulf of Naples
Gulf of Taranto
Gulf of Corinth
Gulf of Patras
Gulf of Lepanto
Gulf of Salonica
Gulf of Cattaro
Gulf of Durazzo
Gulf of Sidra
Gulf of Cabes
Gulf of Tunis
Gulf of Algiers
Gulf of Oran
Gulf of Cadiz
Gulf of Lisbon
Gulf of Biscay
Gulf of Gascony
Gulf of Lyons
Gulf of Genoa
Gulf of Naples
Gulf of Taranto
Gulf of Corinth
Gulf of Patras
Gulf of Lepanto
Gulf of Salonica
Gulf of Cattaro
Gulf of Durazzo
Gulf of Sidra
Gulf of Cabes
Gulf of Tunis
Gulf of Algiers
Gulf of Oran
Gulf of Cadiz
Gulf of Lisbon
Gulf of Biscay
Gulf of Gascony
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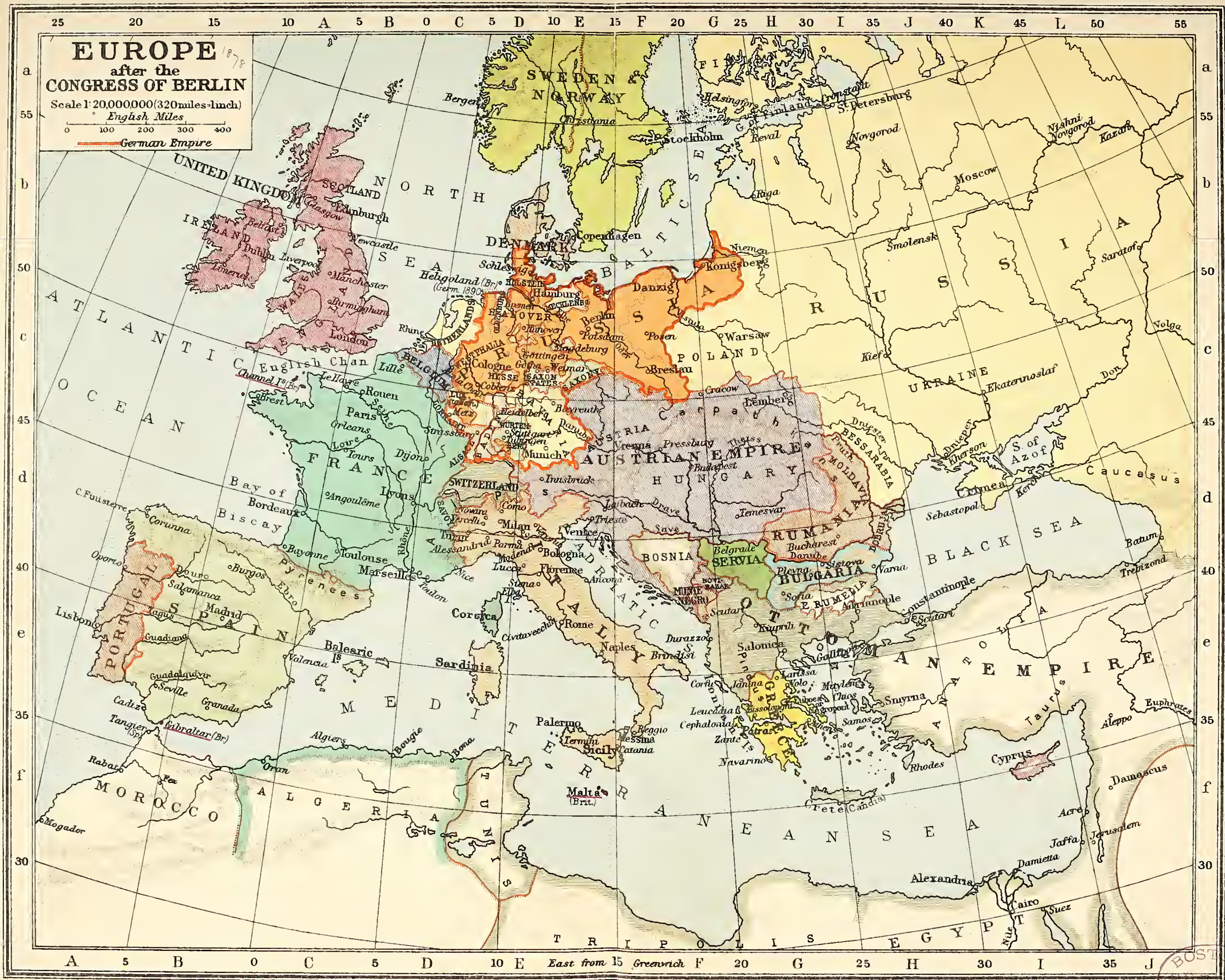
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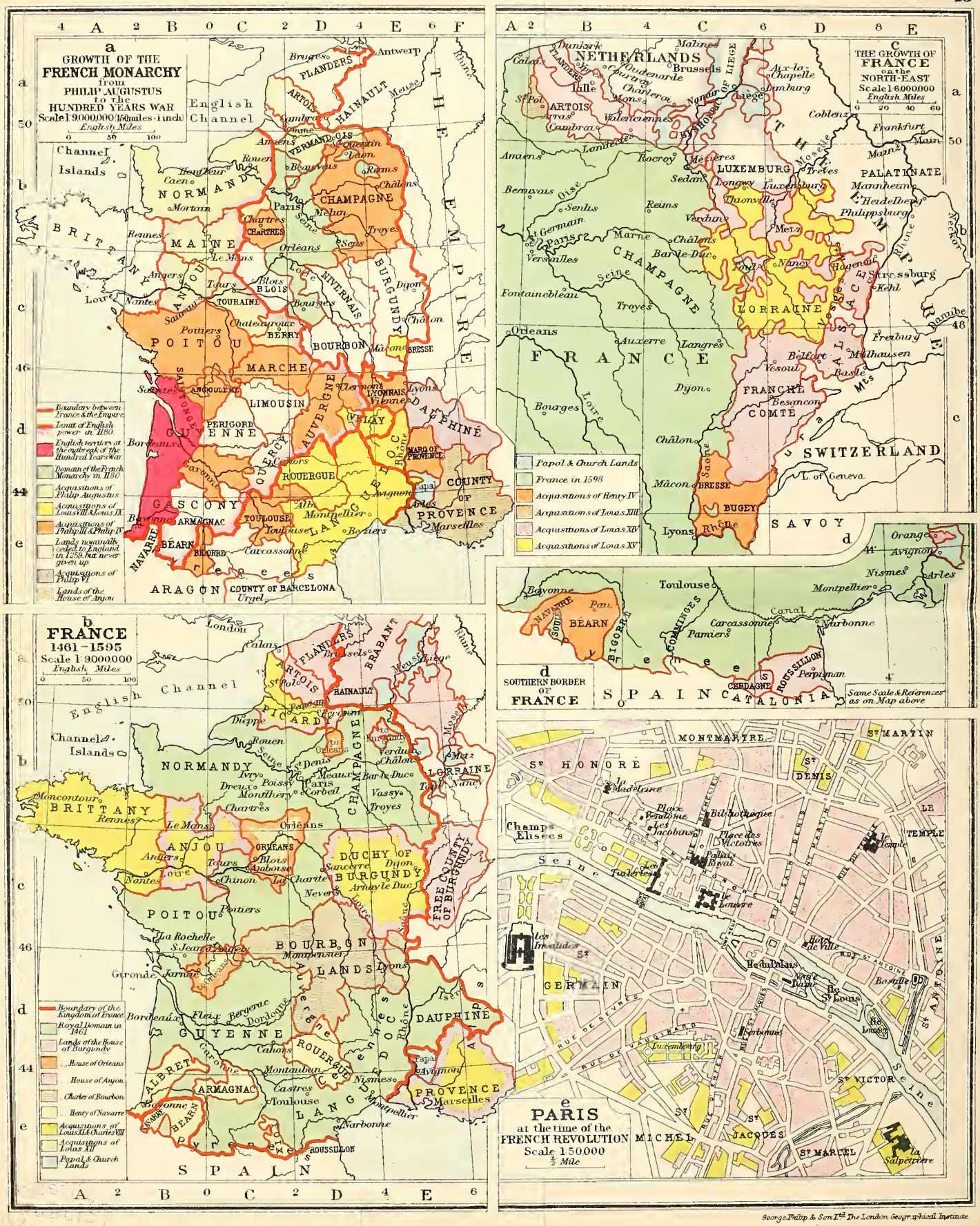
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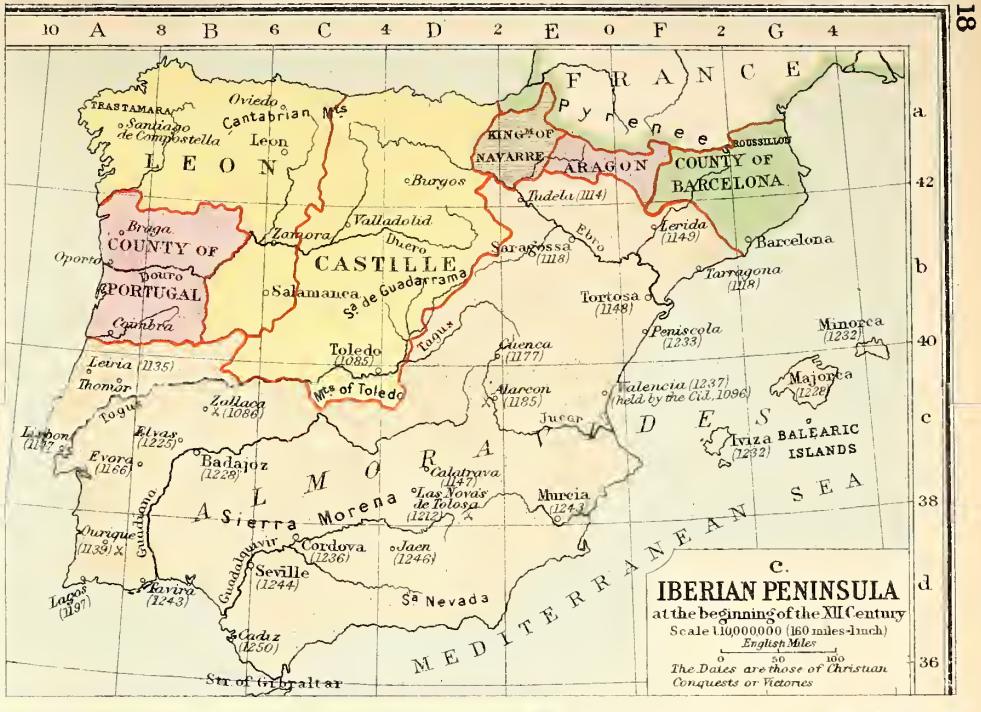


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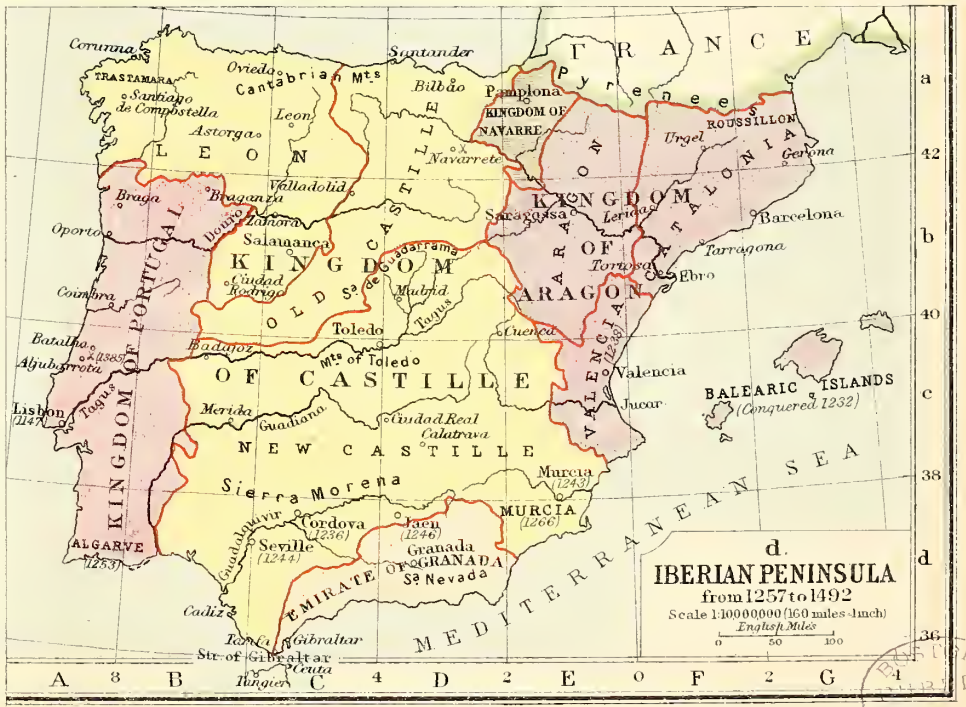


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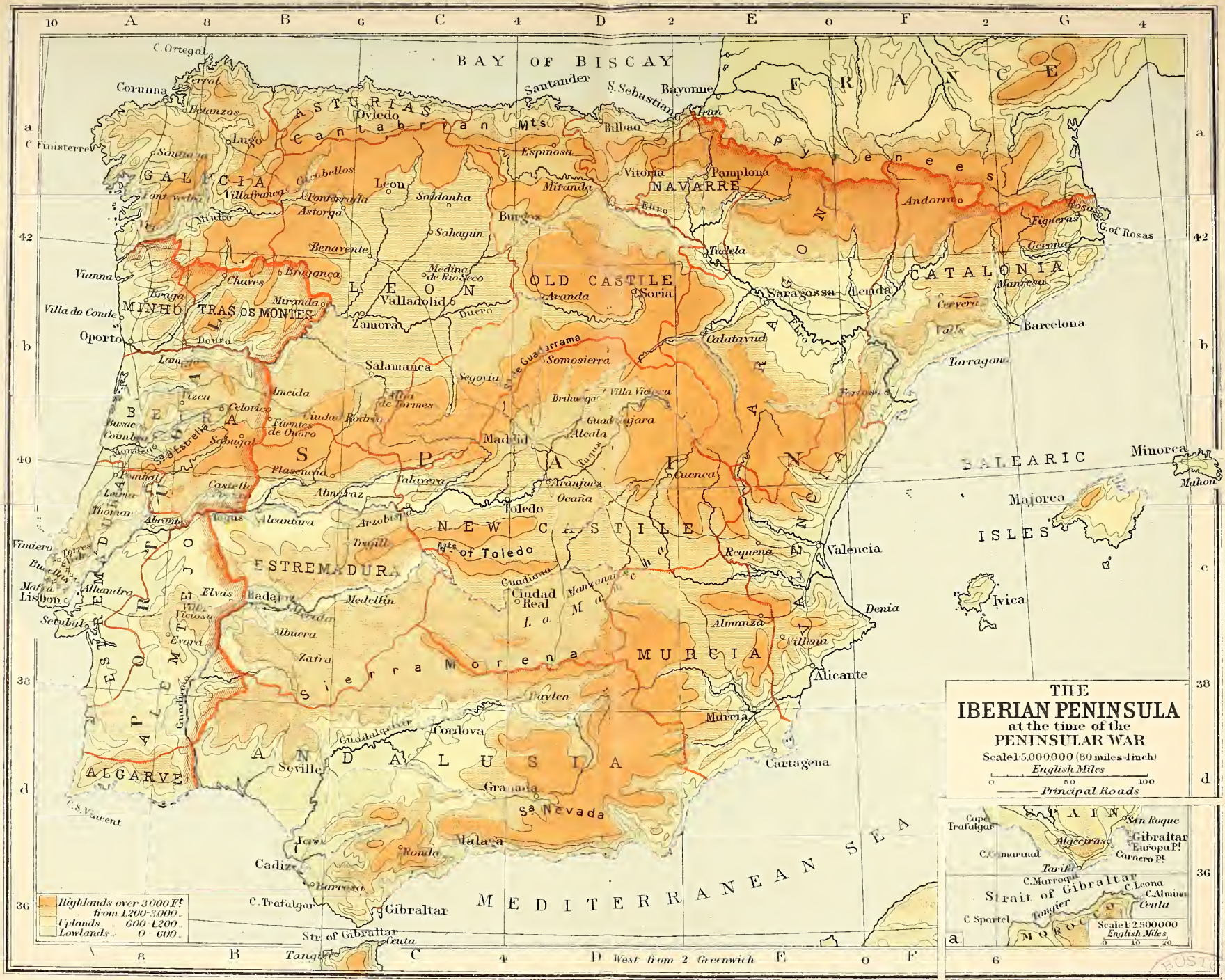








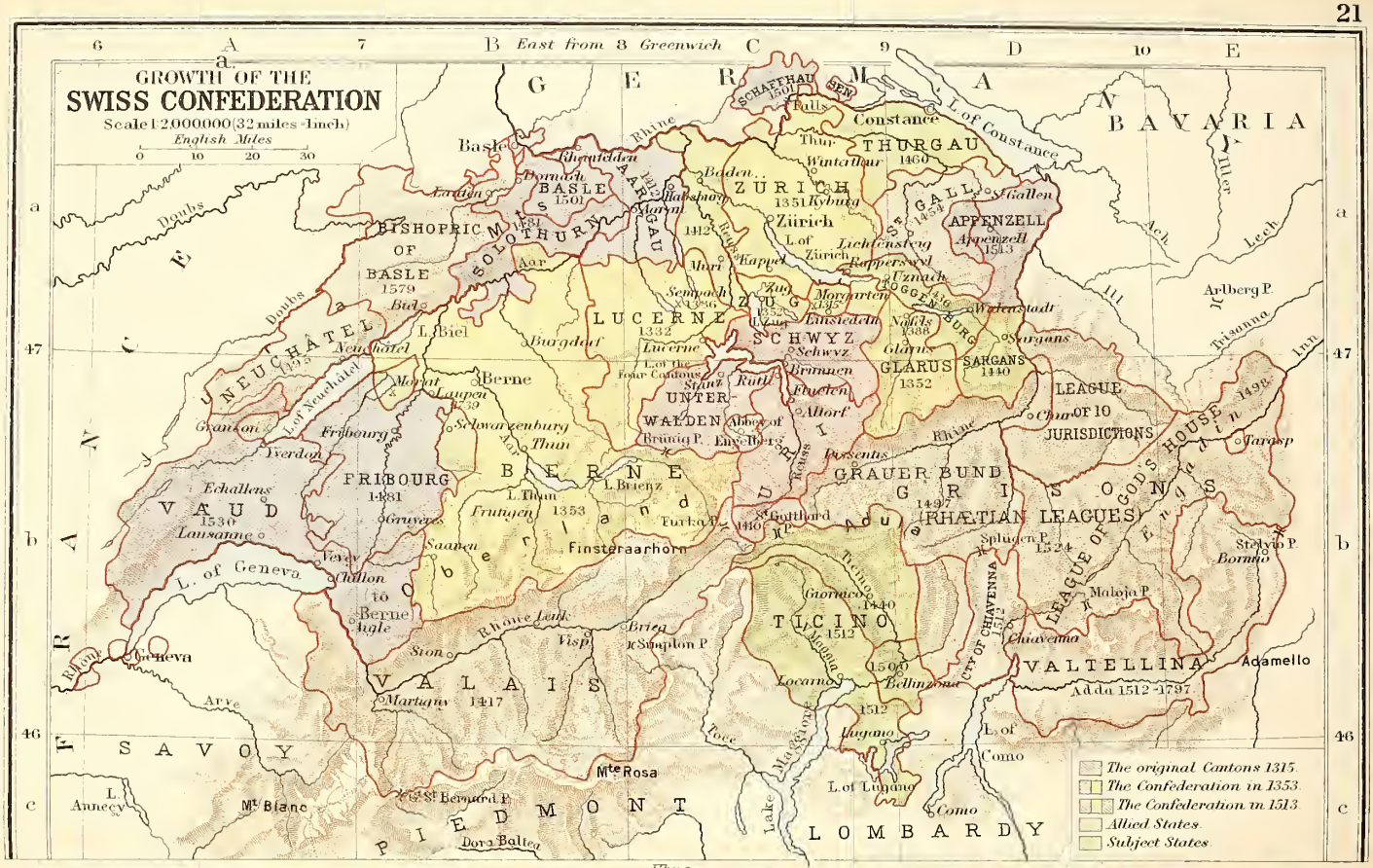
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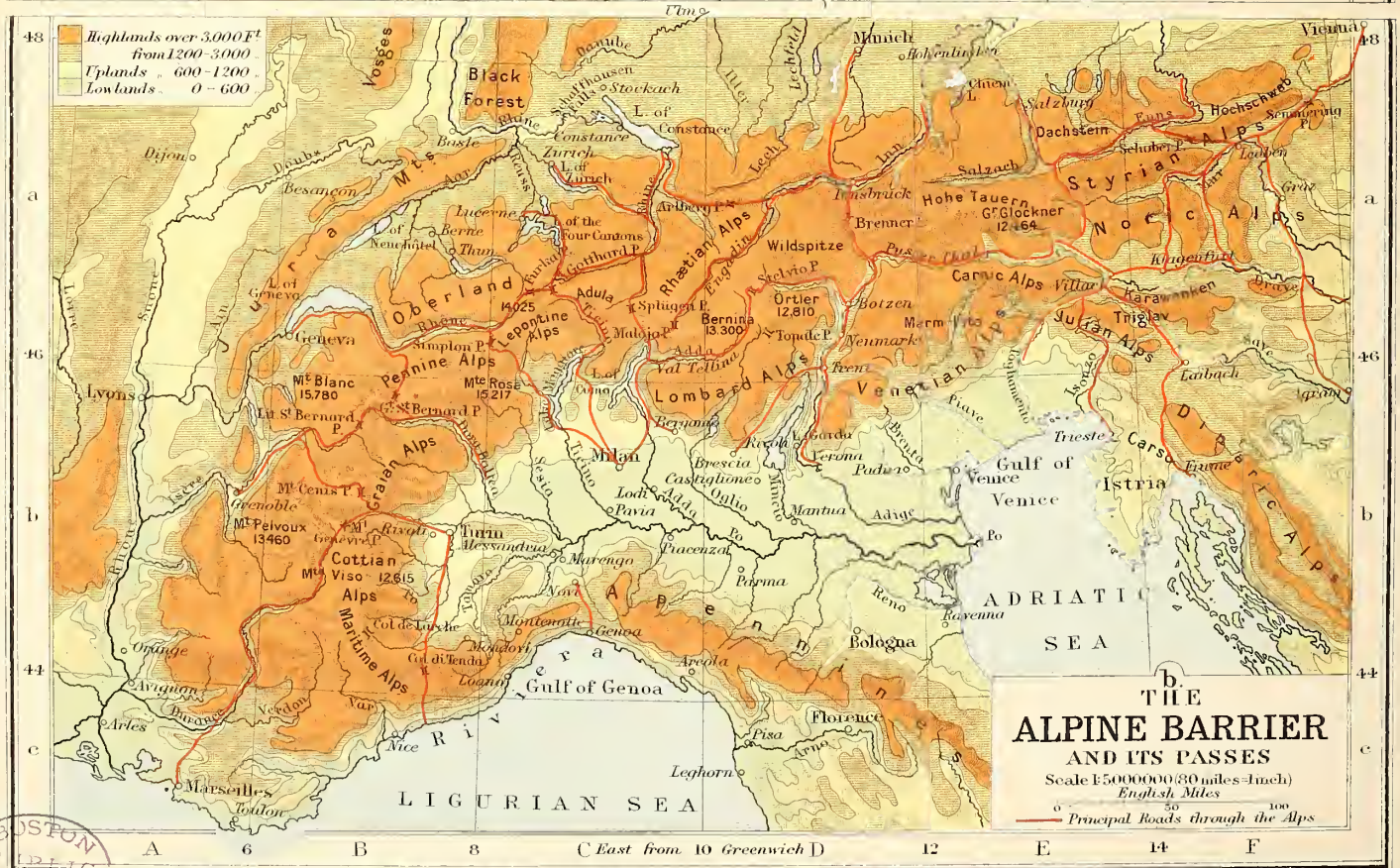


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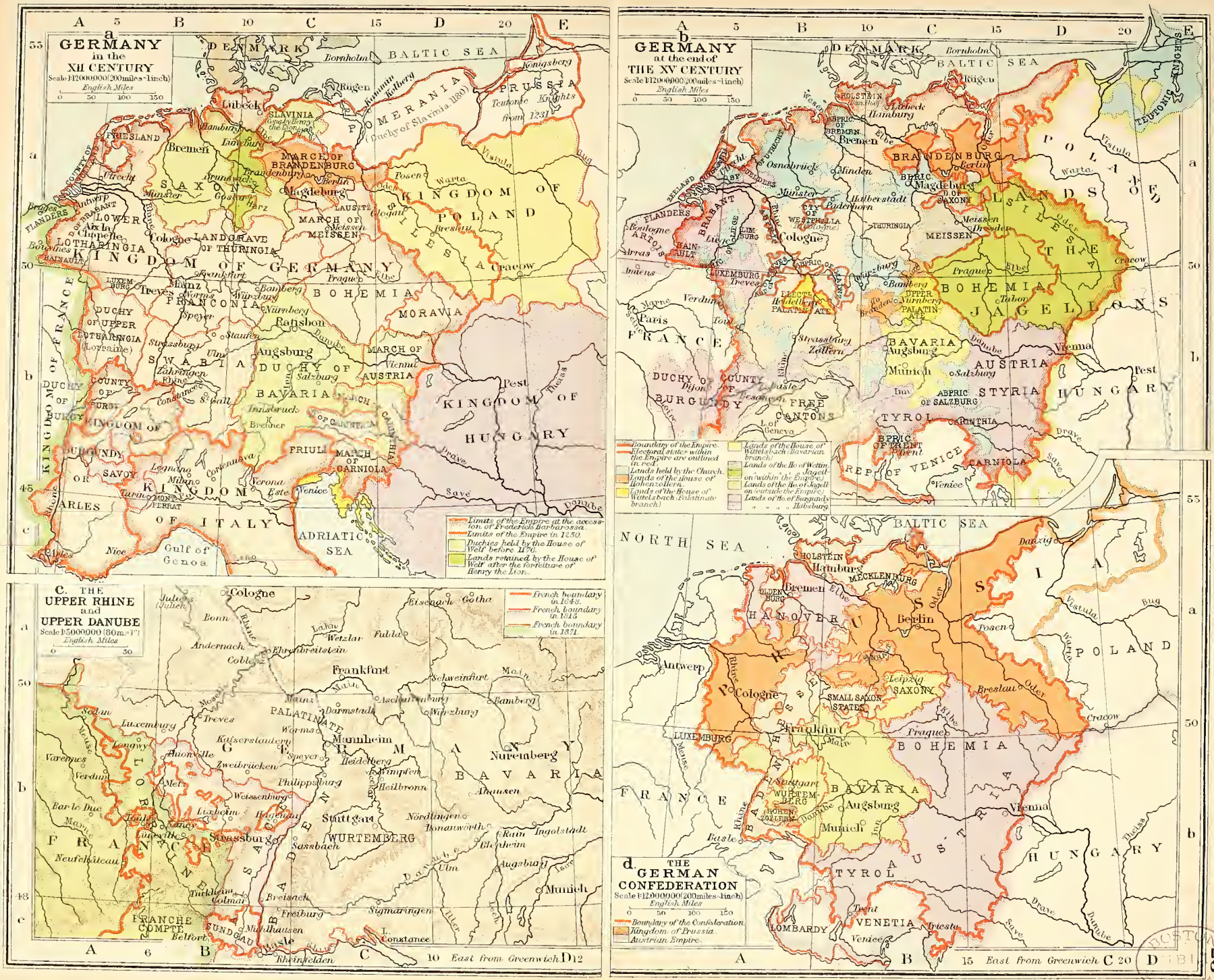
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THE GROWTH OF
BRANDENBURG-PRUSSIA
a.
Scale 1:6000000 (100 miles 1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100
Brandenburg in 1440
Acquisitions 1440-1608
" 1608-1624
" under the Great Elector
" Frederick I. and Frederick William I.
" under Frederick the Great
" Frederick William II
Second Partition of Poland
Third " " "
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
HOLSTEIN
EAST FRIESLAND
MECKLENBURG
PRIEGNITZ
ALTMARK
MITTELMARK
NEUMARK
EASTERN POMERANIA
W. POMERANIA
WEST PRUSSIA
(First Partition)
EAST PRUSSIA
(Third Partition)
NEW EAST PRUSSIA
ERMLAND
SOUTH PRUSSIA
(Second Partition)
MAGDEBURG
HALBERSTADT
MINDEN
RAVENSBERG
MARK
CLEVES
BERG
SAXONY
SILESIA
NEW SILESIA
BAYREUTH
ANSBACH
BOHEMIA
AUSTRIA
BAVARIA
Hamburg
Bremen
Hanover
Brunswick
Berlin
Potsdam
Magdeburg
Leipzig
Dresden
Breslau
Prague
Danzig
Königsberg
Thorn
Posen
Warsaw
Cologne
Frankfurt
Nuremberg
Thuringian Forest
Ore Mts
Giant Mts
Sudetes
Bohemian Forest
Rhine
Vistula
Pilica
Bug
Niemen
Memel
Tilsit
Elbing
Marienwerder
Marienburg
Tannenberg
Stettin
Kolberg
Rostock
Lübeck
Kiel
Flensburg
Schleswig
Emden
Münster
Paderborn
Cassel
Fulda
Coblenz
Aix-la-Chapelle
Jülich
Crefeld
Wesel
Osnabrück
Minden
Celle
Lüneburg
Verden
Stade
Weser
Elbe
Ems
Lahn
Main
Mainz
Frankfurt
Darmstadt
Wiesbaden
Trèves
Saarbrücken
Metz
Strasburg
Basle
Constance
Ulm
Augsburg
Munich
Ratisbon
Passau
Linz
Vienna
Prague
Olmütz
Troppau
Jägerndorf
Neisse
Glogau
Liegnitz
Brieg
Schweidnitz
Leuthen
Mollwitz
Kunersdorf
Zullichau
Frankfurt
Küstrin
Fehrbellin
Ruppin
Zorndorf
Torgau
Halle
Rossbach
Weimar
Eisenach
Gotha
Erfurt
Hesse-Cassel
Hesse-Darmstadt
Nassau
Westphalia
Rhine Province
Hesse
Saxony
Lausitz
Posen
Kulm
Graudenz
Culm
Sadowa
Königgrätz
Chotusitz
Czaslau
Kolin
Lobositz
Pirna
Meissen
Elbe
Oder
Warthe
Visula
Bug
Pilica
1793
1772
1795
1618
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GROWTH OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE

Scale 1:20,000,000 (320 miles = 1 inch)

English Miles 0 100 200 300



a. THE SIEGE OF SEVASTOPOL

Scale 1:250,000 (4 m.=1")

0 1 2

Railway Roads

b. FIELD OF OPERATIONS in the CRIMEAN WAR

Scale 1:2,500,000 (40 m.=1")

0 5 10 20



c. RUSSIA-PHYSICAL

Half the scale of general map

Highlands over 3000 Ft.

from 1200-3000 "

Uplands 600-1200 "

Lowlands 0-600 "

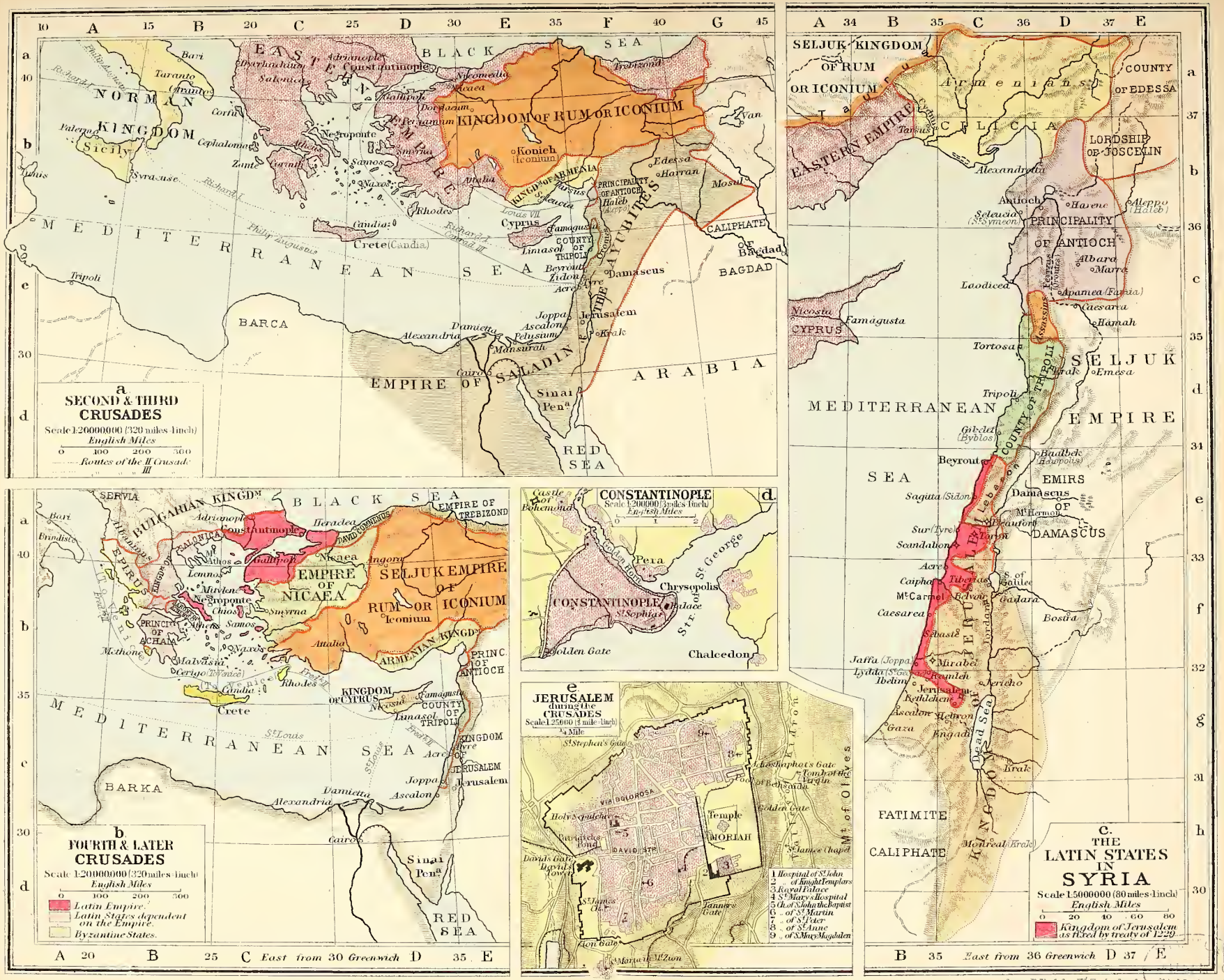
below Sea-Level

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ENGLAND
and her
INVADERS
in the XIth CENTURY
Scale 1:8,000,000 (130 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100
West from Greenwich
East from Greenwich
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
NORTH SEA
IRISH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Faroe Is.
Shetland Is.
Orkney Is.
NORWAY
Trondhjem (Nidaros)
Glommen
Logan
Sogne Fiord
Bergen
Hardanger Fiord
Stavanger
Christiania (Oslo)
The Nase
Skager Rak
The Skaw
Cattegat
The Sound
DENMARK
Copenhagen
Gt. Belt
SWEDEN
Klar Elf
L. Wener
Göteborg
SCOTLAND
MORAY
Spey
Dee
Tay
Firth of Forth
Edinburgh
LOTHIAN
Berwick
Bamburgh
Tweed
Clyde
Firth of Clyde
STRATHCLYDE
GALLOWAY
CUMBRIA
SIWARD
Tyne
Durham
Tees
Swale
MORCAR
York
Ouse
Humber
Mersey
Chester
Lincoln
Trent
Nottingham
Lichfield
Leicester
HOUSE OF LEOFRIC
EDWIN
WALTHEOF
GYRTH
LEOFWINE
Assandun
Maldon
London
Thames
Gloucester
Worcester
Severn
WALES
Bristol
HOUSE OF GODWIN
HAROLD
Winchester
Rochester
Canterbury
Dover
Hastings
Pevensey
Exeter
ULSTER
Bann
Erne
CONNAUGHT
MEATH
Dublin
LEINSTER
Shannon
Barrow
Limerick
MUNSTER
Blackwater
Cork
Wexford
Waterford
Channel Islands
Constances
Boulogne
Calais
Bruges
FLANDERS
Somme
St. Valery
PICARDY
Arques
Rouen
Seine
Jumièges
Bayeux
Caen
Tenchebrai
Domfront
NORMANDY
Mantes
Paris
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
CHAMPAGNE
BRITTANY
Dol
Rennes
Nantes
MAINE
Le Mans
Angers
Tours
ANJOU
Loire
BURGUNDY
FRISIA
SAXONIA
Elbe
Weser
Rhine
LOTHARINGIA
THE EMPIRE
Aix la Chapelle
Moselle
Meuse
Frankfurt
Main
FRANCIA
Danube
L. Constance
Sea 0-600 Feet (100 Fathoms)
" 600-6000 Feet (1000 Faths.)
" below 6000 Feet
Lands under direct rule of Canute.
Lands owing suzerainty to Canute.
The great English Earldoms at the death of Edward the Confessor.
The lands of William of Normandy—Direct Rule.
" " —Dependencies
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a.
FRANCE
at the
PEACE OF BRETIGNY, 1360
Scale 1:9,000,000 (150 miles = 1 Inch)
English Miles
Lands ceded to England at Treaty of Paris, 1259.
Lands held by England at accession of Edward III.
Lands ceded to England at Treaty of Bretigny. Edward III.s march to Calais.
b.
FRANCE
in 1429
Scale 1:9,000,000 (150 miles = 1 Inch)
English Miles
Lands recognising Henry VI.
Lands recognising the Dauphin.
Burgundian Lands.
First campaign of Henry V.
c.
WALES & THE MARCHES
in the XIIIth Century
Scale 1:2,500,000 (40 miles = 1 Inch)
English Miles
Counties created by Edward I by the Statute of Wales. 1284. named thus. Flint.
Principality of Gwynedd or North Wales.
Principality of North Wales at its widest extent 1267.
Lands uncoloured were generally held by Welsh Barons.
Approximate area of jurisdiction of Lords Marcher.
CLARE ... Principal Marcher Lordships.
Castles
d.
THE
SCOTTISH
BORDERS
Scale 1:2,500,000 (40 miles = 1 Inch)
English Miles
Franchise of Bishopric of Durham.
Castles.
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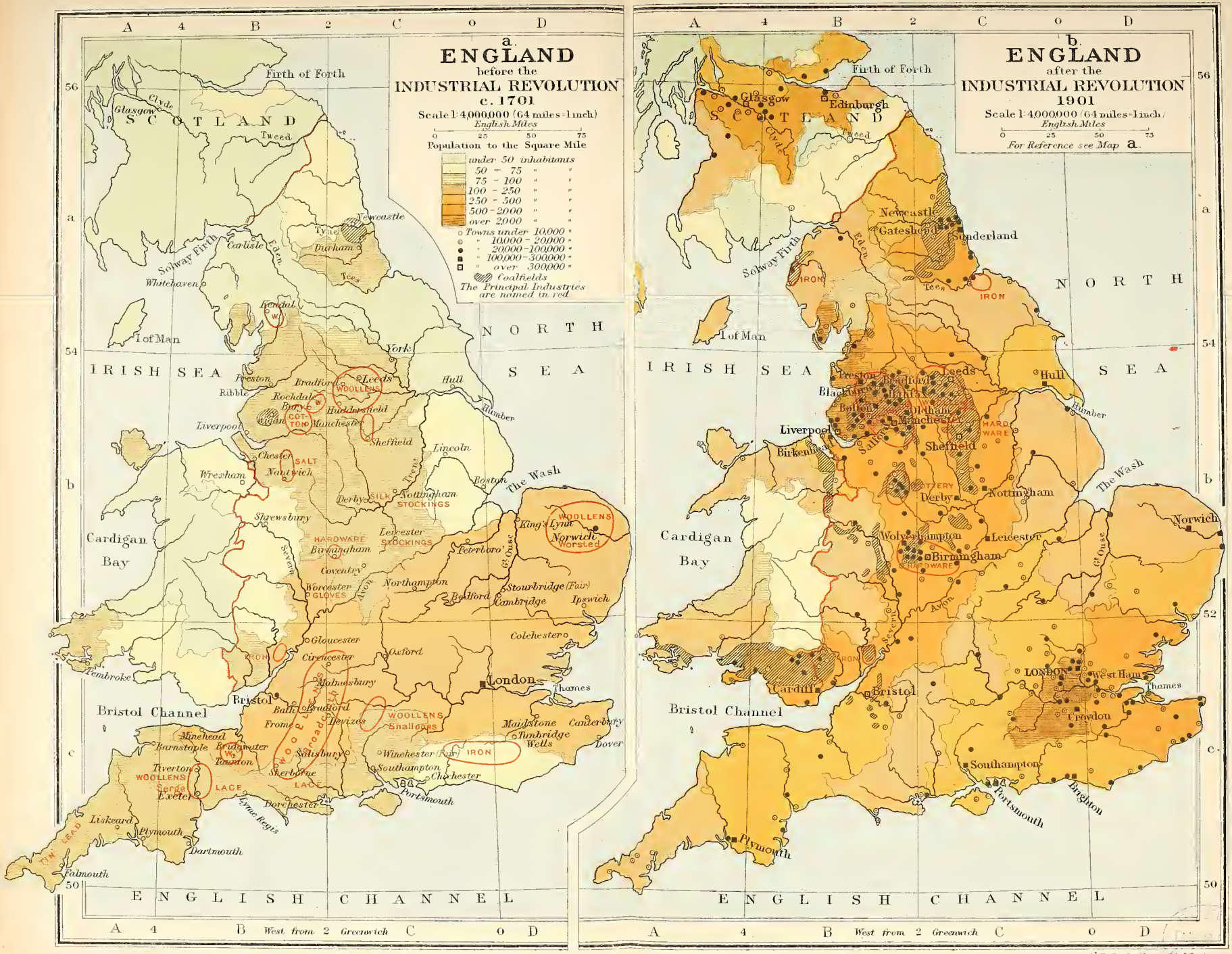
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a.
IRELAND
IN THE
MIDDLE AGES
showing
PRINCIPAL FAMILIES
AND CLANS
Scale 1:3,000,000 (50 miles-1 inch)
English Miles
0 10 20 30 40
b.
THE ENGLISH
PLANTATION
OF IRELAND
in the XVI & XVII Cs
1:8000000 (130M.)
Approximate area under effective English control, and in which land was held on the English system at the end of the reign of Henry VIII.
Scottish immigrants Henry VIII to James I.
Tudor plantations or resettlements at the land system.
The plantation of Ulster.
Other Stuart plantations.
c.
IRELAND
SINCE THE
REFORMATION
Scale 1:3,000,000 (50 miles-1 inch)
English Miles
0 10 20 30 40
Archbishopries
Bishopries
Older Bishopries
d.
THE CROMWELLIAN
SETTLEMENT
in
IRELAND
1:8000000 (130M.)
Land allotted to English soldiers and adventurers (including Connaught and Clare for four miles from the shore)
Land reserved for "innocent" native proprietors throughout Ireland.
ULSTER
CONNAUGHT
LEINSTER
CLARE
MUNSTER
North Channel
Irish Sea
ULSTER
TYRONE
O'Neill
O'Donnell
TYRCONNELL
CONNAUGHT
DE BURGH
BURKE
O'Connor
O'Kelly
O'Flaherty
O'Shaughnessy
O'Brien
THOMOND
FITZGERALD
MUNSTER
DESMOND
O'Sullivan
O'Donovan
MEATH
DE LACY
LEINSTER
DEIX
MORTIMER
O'Toole
O'Byrne
O'Moore
O'Connor
O'Dempsey
O'Nolan
O'Doherty
O'Dowd
O'Reilly
O'Hanlon
Mc Mahon
Mc Guire
Mc Swiney
Mc Carthy
Maguire
Maguennis
Fitzpatrick
Fitzmaurice
Fitzgibbon
Butler
Nugent
Mortimer
Fitzgerald
Roche
Barry
Norman Families thus BUTLER
Irish Clans O'Neill
Boundary of the Pale in the XV Century
Castles Boroughs
A 10 C Clear B 9 C West from 8 Greenwich D 7 E 6 F
C 8 D 7 E 6 F
10 8 6
54
52
56
55
53
a
b
c
d
e



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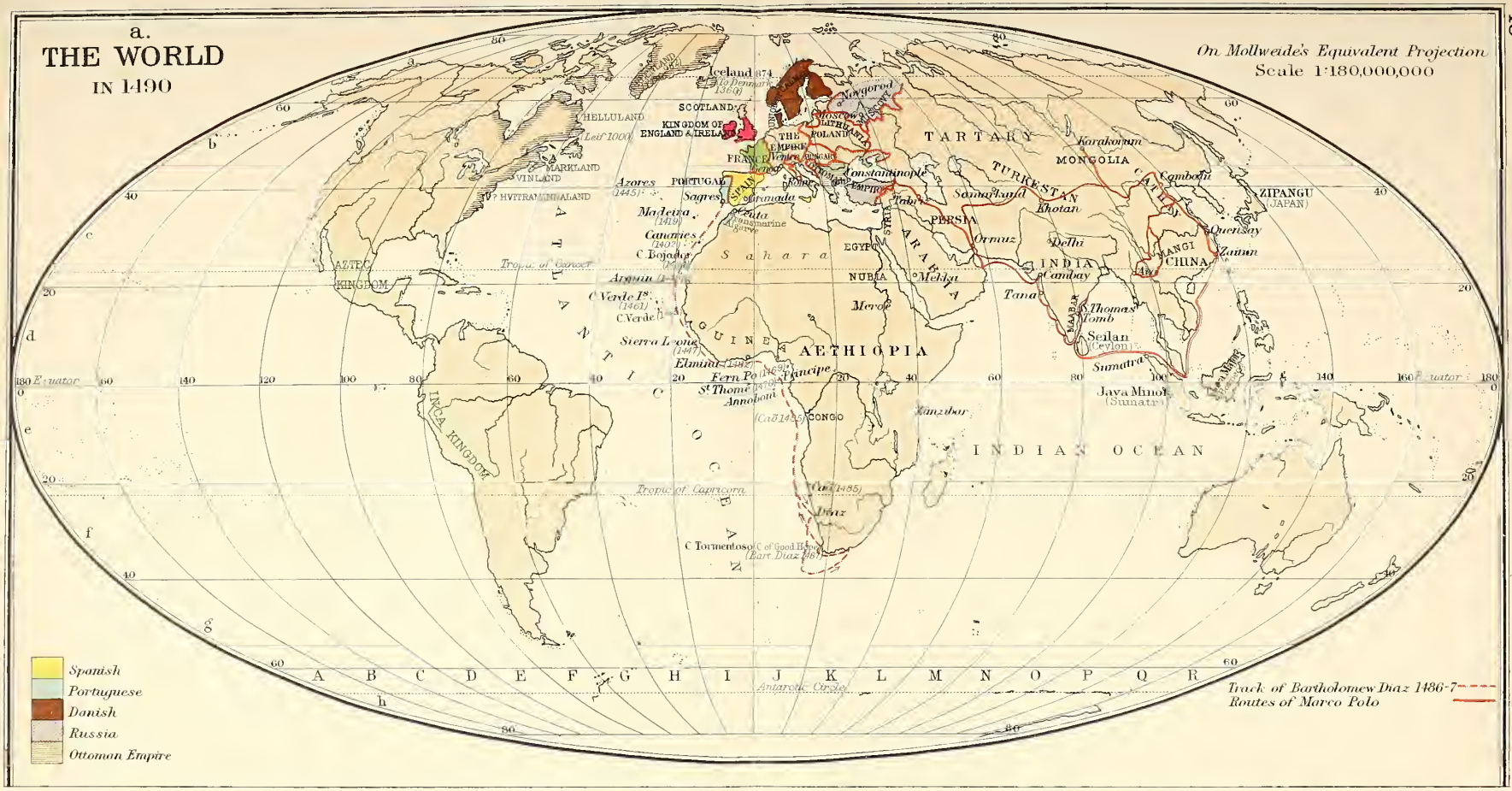


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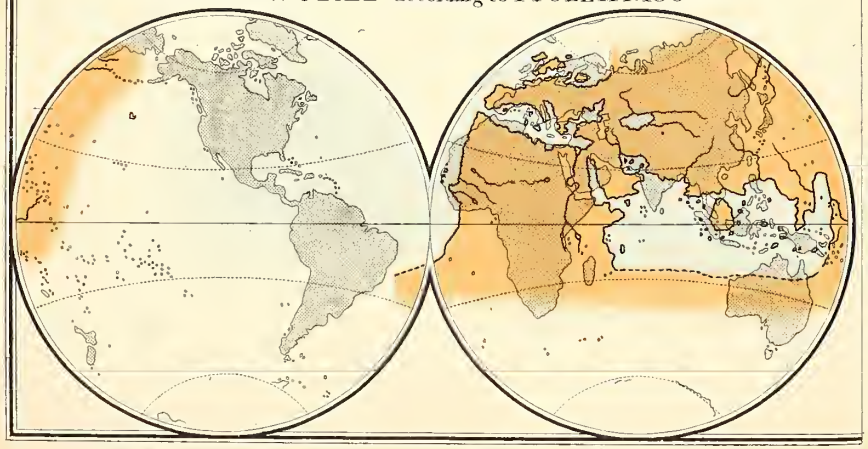

a.
THE
NARROW SEAS
to illustrate
BRITISH NAVAL WARS
Scale 1: 6,000,000 (95 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 50 100
The Dates are those of the more important Sea fights
b.
THE
NORTH ATLANTIC
Equatorial Scale 1: 50,000,000
Nelsons Track
Villeneuves "
The Black Arrows show the prevailing Winds
IRISH SEA
NORTH SEA
ENGLAND
WALES
HOLLAND
GERMANY
FRISIAN ISLANDS
OLDENBURG
ENGLISH CHANNEL (LA MANCHE)
NORMANDY
BRITTANY
PICARDY
FRANCE
SPAIN
UNITED KINGDOM
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
Channel Is
Newfoundland
Bahama Islands
WEST INDIES
HISPANIOLA
CARIBBEAN SEA
Gulf of Mexico
PACIFIC OCEAN
BRAZIL
GUIANA
AFRICA
Canary Is
Cape Verde Is
Azores
Madeira
Westerly Winds
North-East Trade Winds
Equatorial Calms
South-East Trade Winds
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
Helgoland
Cuxhaven
Hamburg
Bremerhaven
Wilhelmshaven
Bremen
Texel
Helder
Camperdown 1797
Bergen
Zuider Zee
The Hague
Rotterdam
Brill
Walcheren I.
Flushing
Cadsand
Damme
Sluys 1340
Bergen op Zoom
Antwerp
Ghent
Brussels
Cologne
Cassel
Rhine
Ruhr
Ems
Weser
Elbe
Aller
Yarmouth
Lowestoft 1665
Southwold
Sole Bay 1672
The Nore
Harwich
Gabbards
Orfordness
London
Thames
Chatham 1667
Sandwich
N Foreland
The Downs 1653
Dover 1666
Ostend
Bruges
Gravelines
Dunkirk 1658
Calais (1347-1557)
C. Gris Nez
Boulogne
Dungeness 1652
Hastings
Beachy Hd 1690
Folkestone
Romney
Hythe
Winchelsea
Rye
Portsmouth
Southsea
Spithead
St Helens
I. of Wight
Torbay 1688
Plymouth
Dr Ormouth 1588
Falmouth
Lizard
Lands End
St Ives
Whitsand B
Dartmouth
Exmouth
Poole
Lyme Regis
Exeter
Teignmouth
Bideford
Barnstaple
Bristol
Bristol Chan.
Milford Haven
Pembroke
Fishguard 1796
Liverpool
Chester
Lancaster
Ouse
Trent
Severn
Boston
The Wash
Kings Lynn
Spurn Hd
Anglesey
Great Ouse
Alderney
Cherbourg 1758
Guernsey
Jersey 1651
Cde la Hague
Bartleur
La Hougue 1692
Le Havre 1562-3
Honfleur
Harfleur
Rouen
Dieppe
St Valery
Fecamp
Somme
Abbeville
Bayeux
Caen
Coutances
Granville
St Malo 1758
Avranches
Ushant
Brest
St Cast
Quiberon 1759, 1795
Belle Ile
Quimper
Lorient
B. of the Castles
Sur. of Belle I.
Intricate I.
St Lawrence
Quebec
ACADIA
Magdalen I.
St Johns
C. Race
St Pierre I.
Louisburg
Cape Breton I.
Halifax
Sable I.
C. Sable
Portland
Boston
C. Cod
Providence
New York
Newport
Long I.
Philadelphia
Baltimore
DELAWARE
Yorktown 1781
Chesapeake B.
Norfolk
C. Henry 1781
Roanoke Sd
C. Hatteras
Bermuda I.
Savannah
Charleston
New Orleans
St Louis
Ohio
Mississippi
Key W.
Florida
Havana
S. Salvador I.
Caicos Is
Vera Cruz
YUCATAN
1595
Jamaica
Belize
BR HONDURAS
HAITI
DOMINGO
Porto Rico
Kingston
St Christopher
Antigua
Guadeloupe
Rodney & de Grasse 1782
Dominica
Martinique
St Lucia
St Vincent
Barbados
Grenada
Trinidad
Curacoa I.
Caracas
Orinoco
Paramaribo
Surinam
Demerara
Amazon
Acapulco
Cartagena
Porto Bello
Panama
Maracaibo
Gulf of Darien
Pernambuco
Lisbon
Oporto
Ferrol
C Finisterre
Corunna
Vigo
Bilbao
Barcelona
Toulon
Bordeaux
B. of Biscay
Rochefort
La Rochelle
Belle I.
Ushant
Brest
Cherbourg
Plymouth
Portsmouth
Falmouth
Scilly Is.
Lands End
Bantry B.
C. Clear
Thames
London
England
Ireland
Scotland
1794
1805
Cartagena
Gibraltar
Lagos
C. St Vincent
Cadiz
Trafalgar
Tarifa
Algiers
Minorca
Balearic Is
C. Blanco (North)
C. Blanco (South)
C. Bojador
Santa Cruz 1797
Tenerife
Funchal
Senegal
C. Verde
Goree
Gambia
Porto Praya
SIERRA LEONE
DAHOMEY
Azores
Flores
Amazon
Pernambuco
West from 50 Greenwich
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a. THE WORLD IN 1490

On Mollweide's Equivalent Projection
Scale 1:180,000,000



b. THE WORLD according to PTOLEMY: 150



c. THE WORLD according to EDRISI: 1154



d. THE WORLD according to FRA MAURO: 1459



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a.

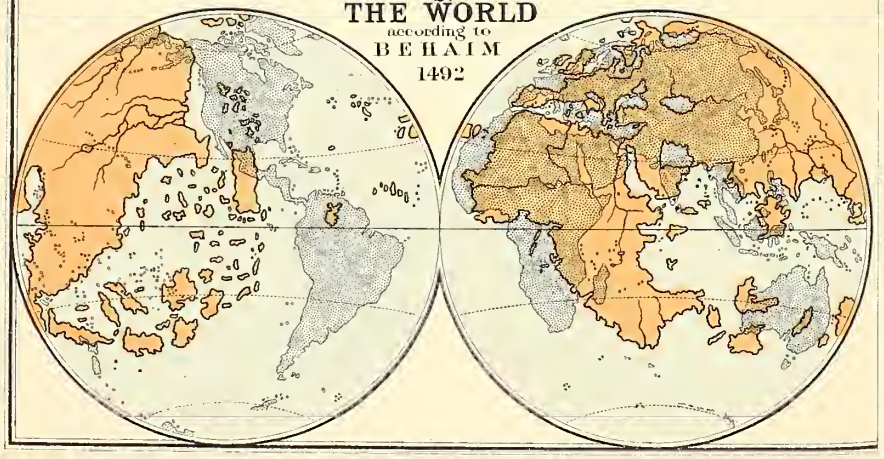
THE WORLD
at the
TREATY of SARAGOSSA
1529

On Mollweide's Equivalent Projection
Scale 1:180,000,000



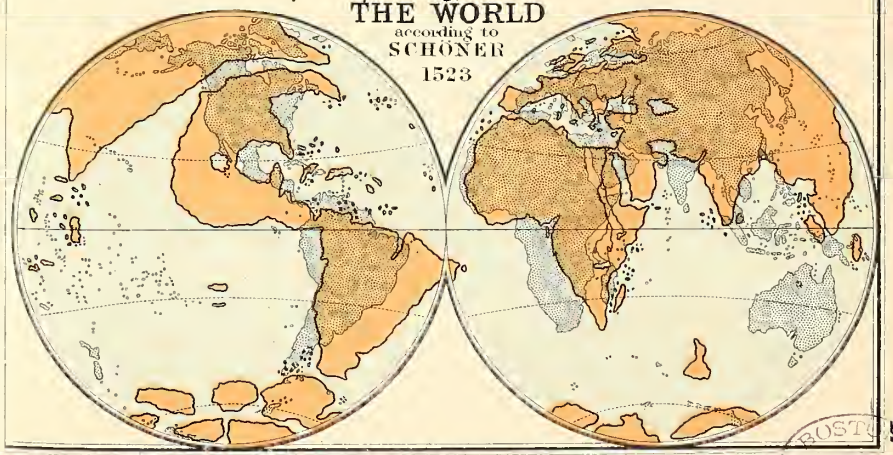
b

THE WORLD
according to
BEHAIM
1492



c

THE WORLD
according to
SCHÖNER
1523



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a.

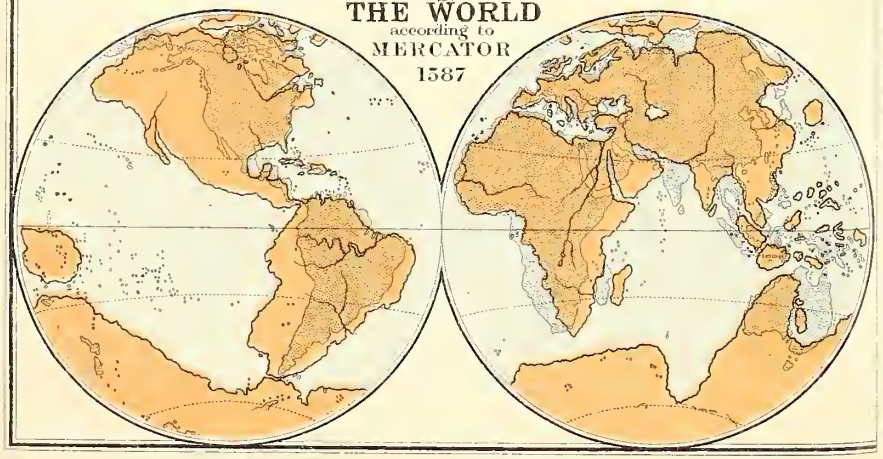
THE WORLD
1600–1650

On Mollweide's Equivalent Projection
Scale 1:130,000,000



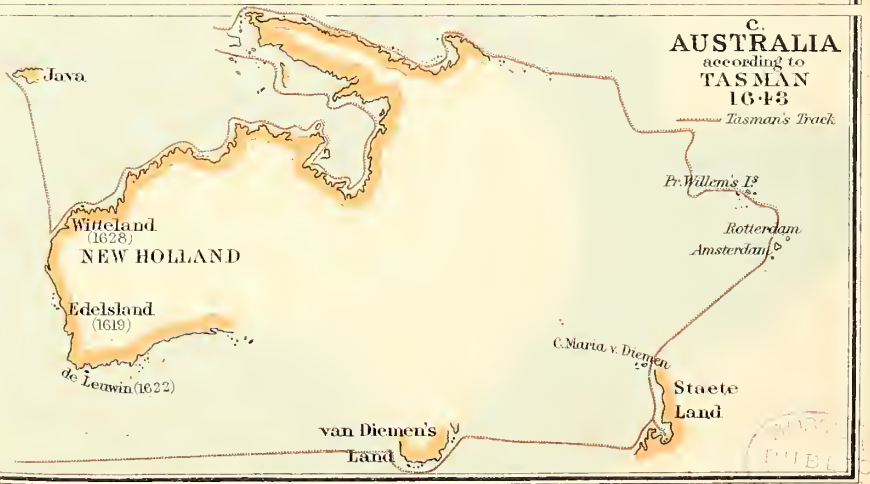
b.

THE WORLD
according to
MERCATOR
1587

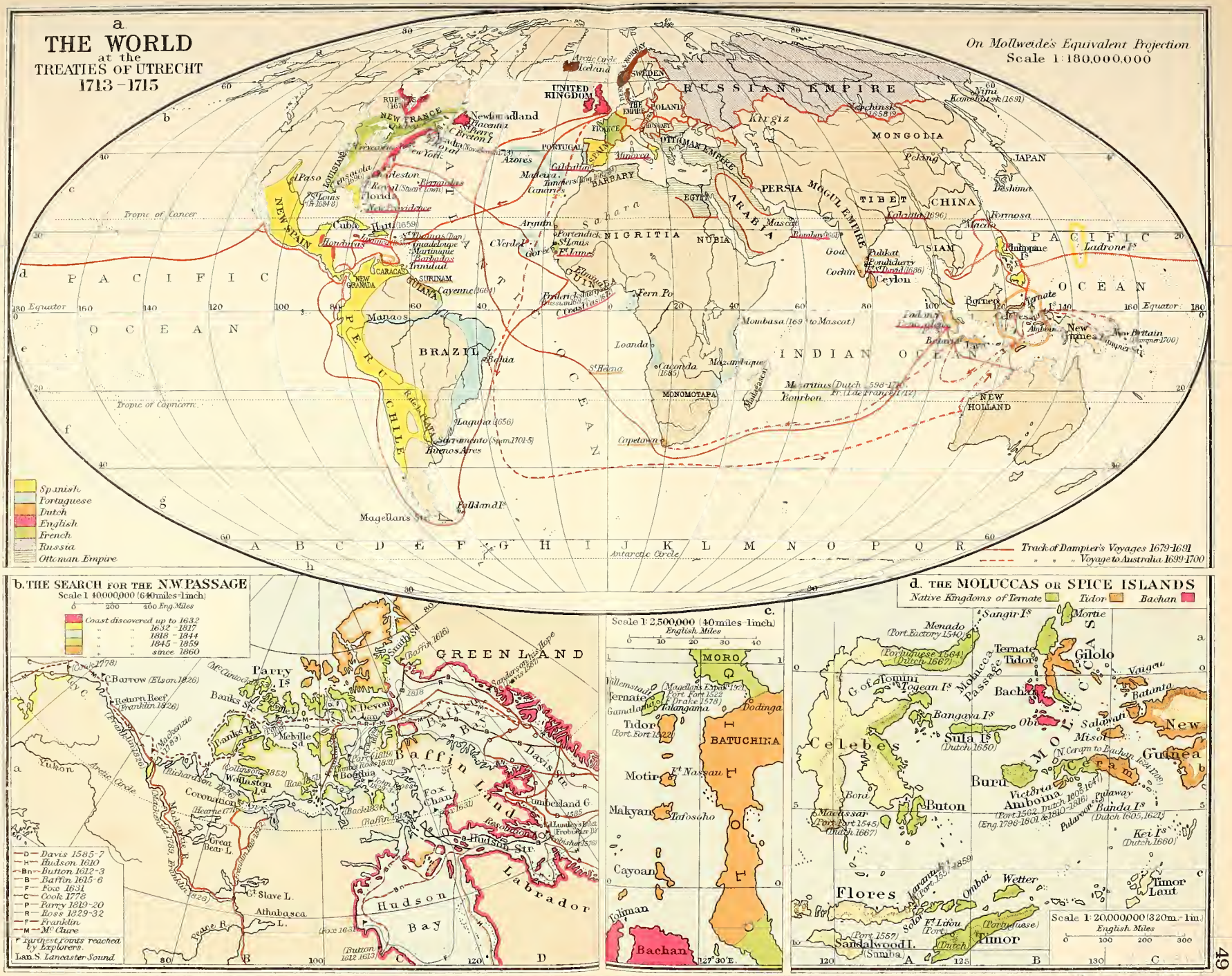


c.

AUSTRALIA
according to
TASMAN
1643



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a.

THE WORLD at the TREATY OF PARIS 1763

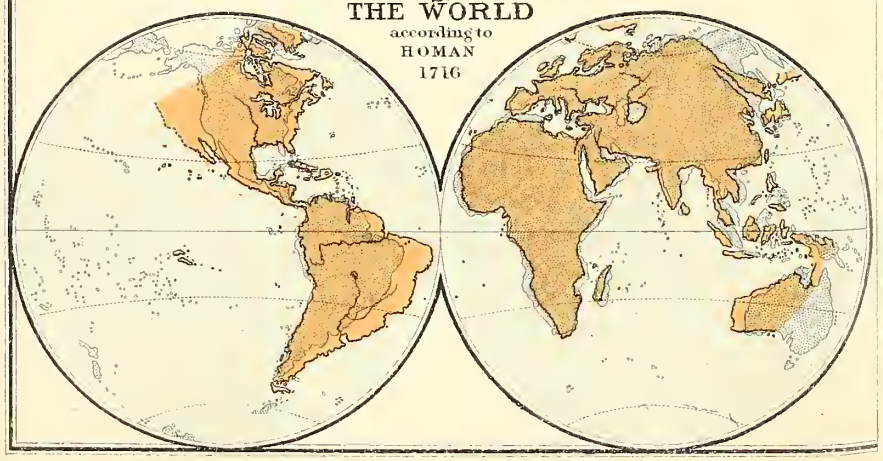
On Mollweides Equivalent Projection

Scale 1:130,000,000



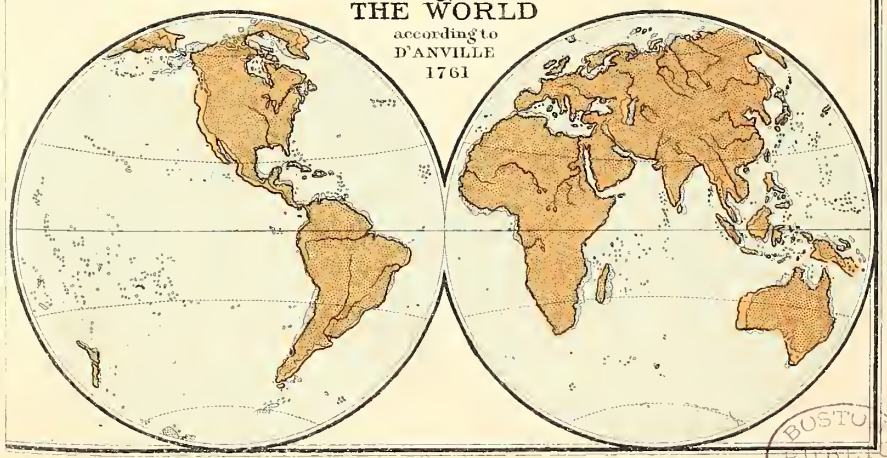
b.

THE WORLD according to HOMAN 1716



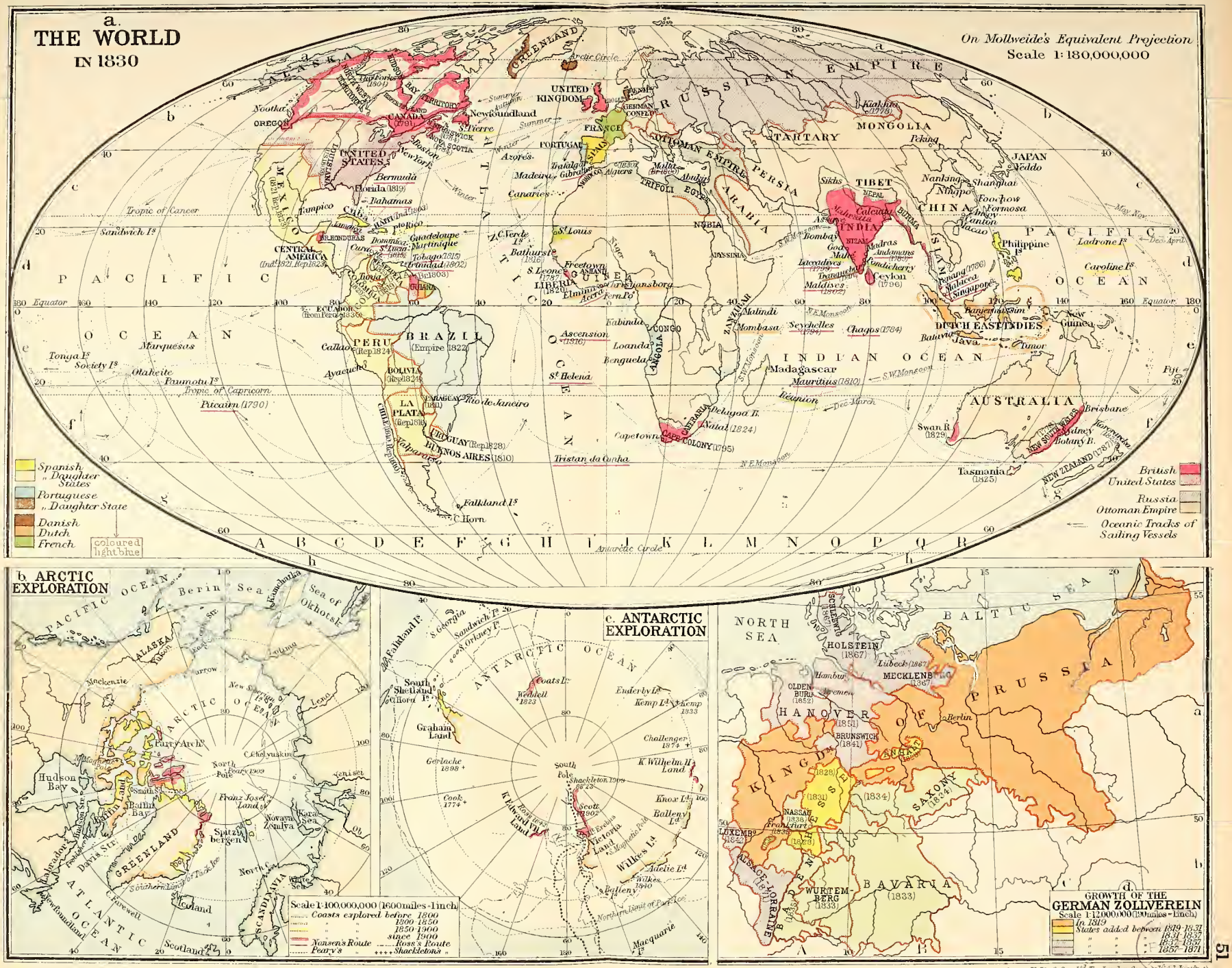
c.

THE WORLD according to D'ANVILLE 1761

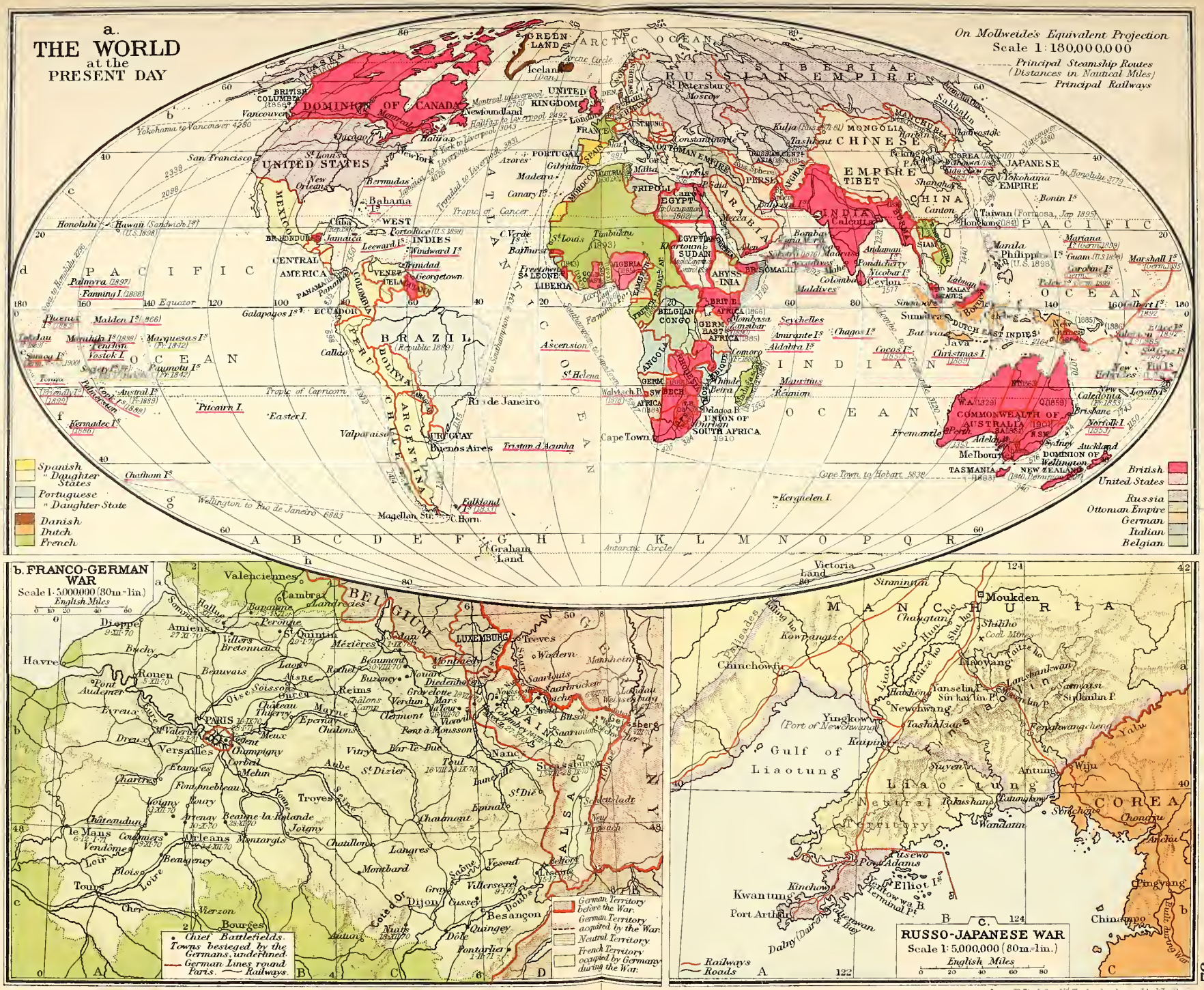


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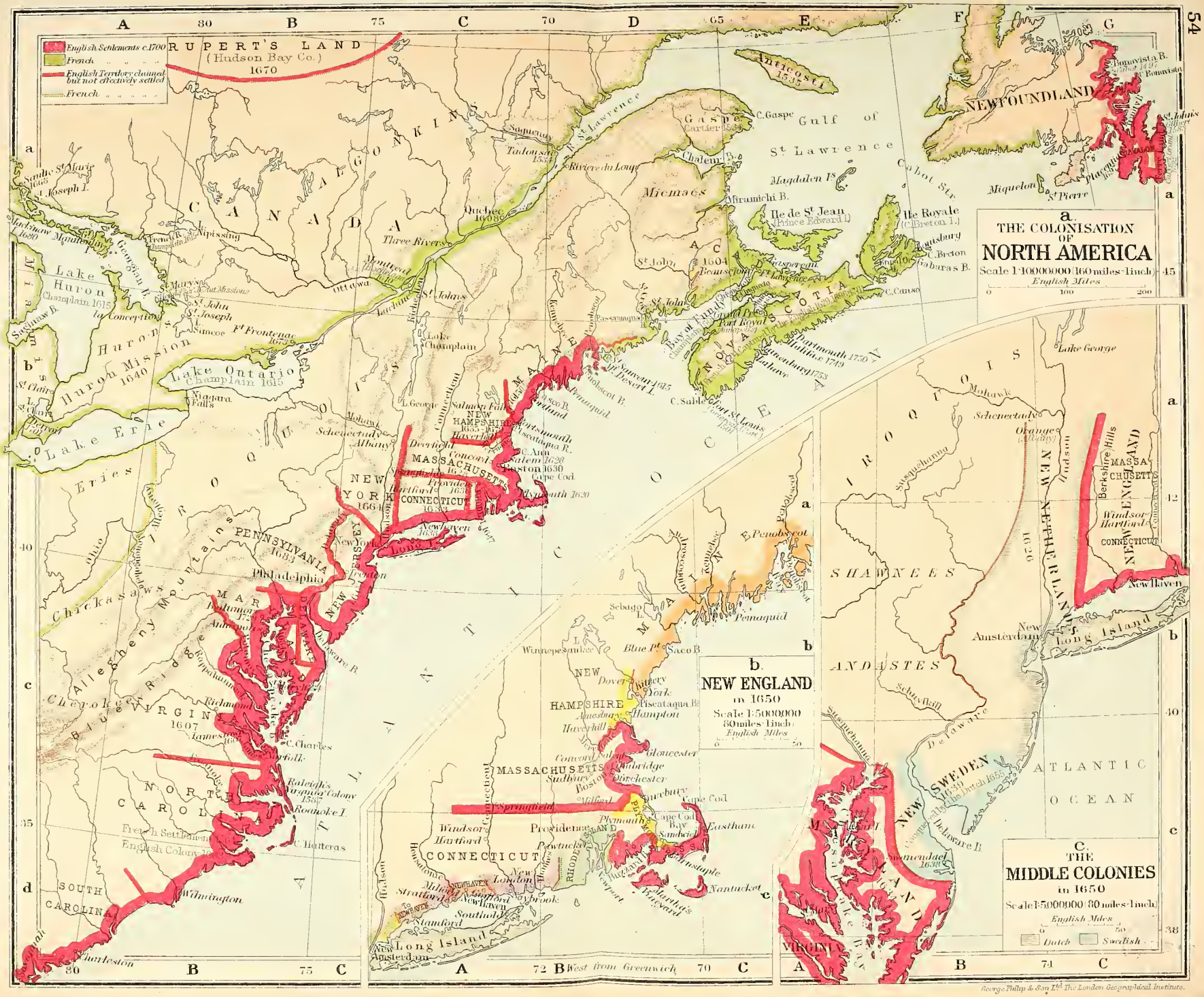
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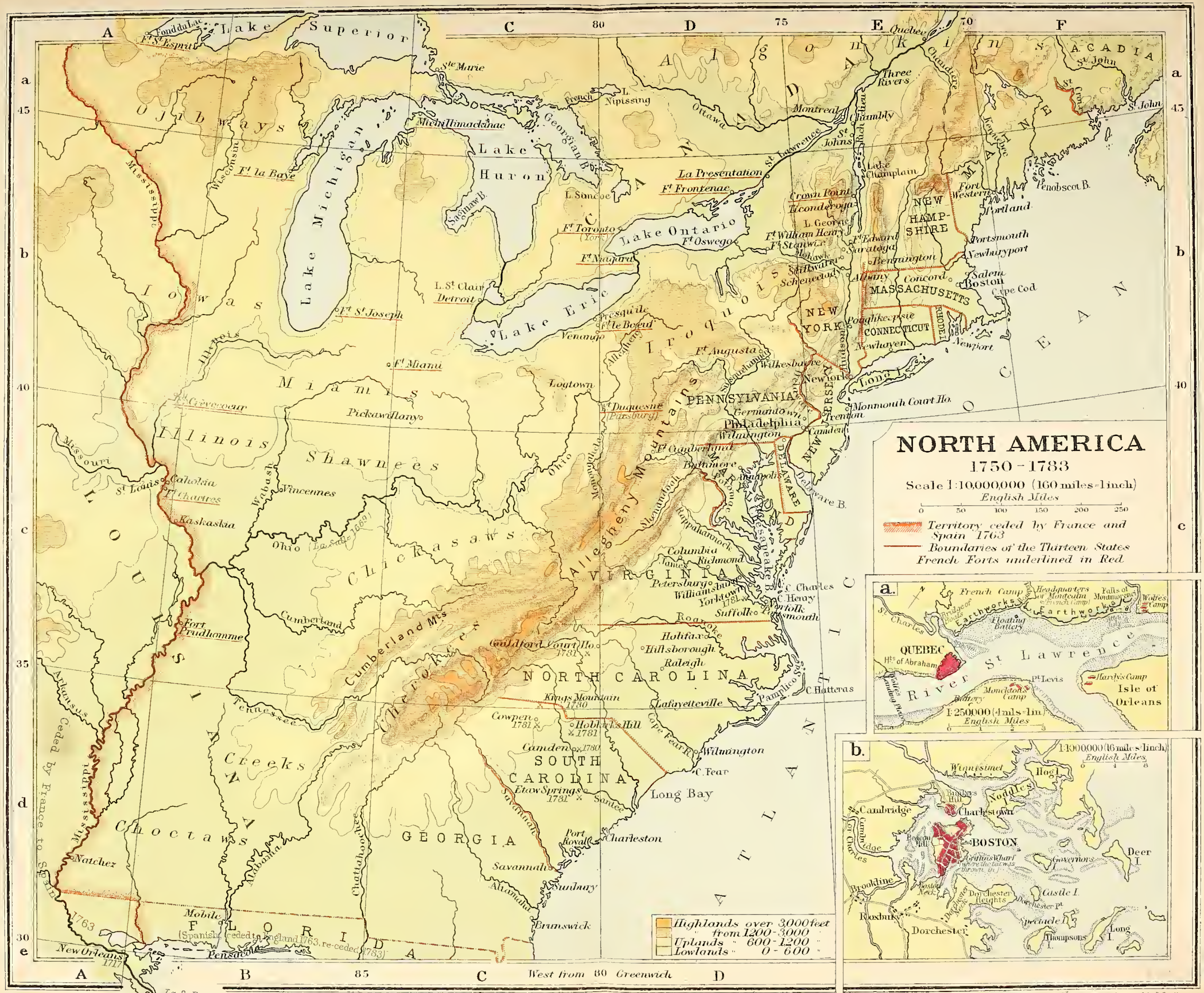
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a.
THE WORLD
at the
PRESENT DAY
On Mollweide's Equivalent Projection
Scale 1: 180,000,000
Principal Steamship Routes
(Distances in Nautical Miles)
Principal Railways
Spanish
" Daughter States
Portuguese
" Daughter State
Danish
Dutch
French
British
United States
Russia
Ottoman Empire
German
Italian
Belgian
b. FRANCO-GERMAN WAR
Scale 1: 3,000,000 (80m.=1in.)
English Miles
Chief Battlefields.
Towns besieged by the Germans, underlined.
German Lines round Paris.
Railways.
German Territory before the War.
German Territory acquired by the War.
Neutral Territory.
French Territory occupied by Germany during the War.
RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR
Scale 1: 5,000,000 (80m.=1in.)
English Miles
Railways
Roads
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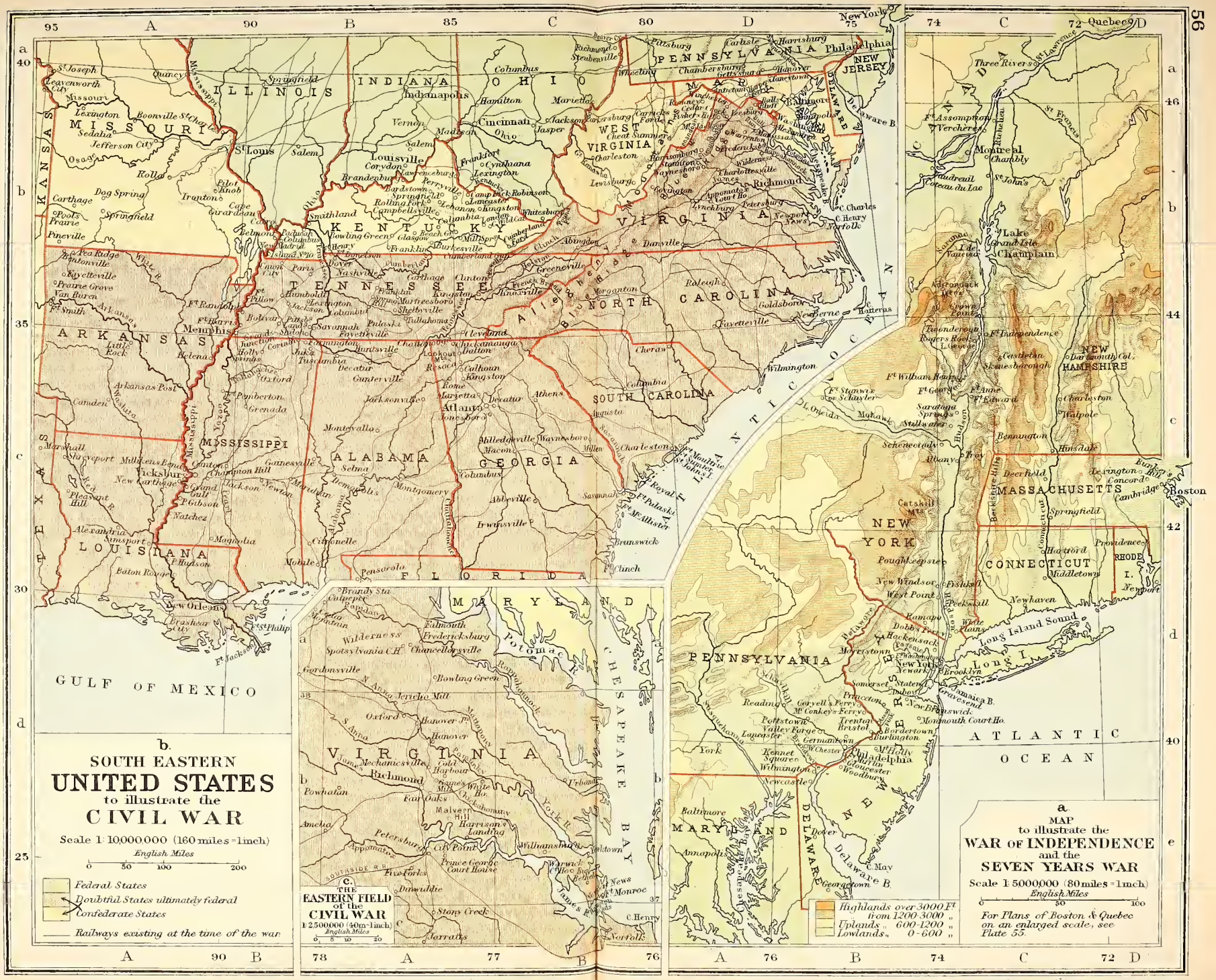

a
WEST INDIES
AND
CENTRAL AMERICA
showing the
Dates of the Principal
EUROPEAN SETTLEMENTS
Scale 1: 25,000,000 (400 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Highlands over 3,000 Feet
from 1,200 - 3,000 "
Uplands from 600 - 1,200 "
Lowlands " 0 - 600 "
West from Greenwich
100 90 80 70 60
A B C D E F G
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
CARIBBEAN SEA
MEXICO
TEXAS
LOUISIANA
FLORIDA
CUBA
GREATER ANTILLES
LESSER ANTILLES
SPANISH MAIN
HISPANIOLA
JAMAICA
YUCATAN
GUATEMALA
HONDURAS
NICARAGUA
COSTA RICA
VENEZUELA
NEW GRANADA
GUIANA
Bahama Islands
Havana
New Orleans
Mexico
Kingston
Caracas
Trinidad
Barbados
Jamaica
Tropic of Cancer
b POLITICAL DISTRIBUTION IN 1650
c POLITICAL DISTRIBUTION IN 1763
d POLITICAL DISTRIBUTION IN 1855
Reference to the Three Inset Maps
1: 50,000,000 (800 m = 1 inch)
English Miles
500
Spanish Territory effectively settled or controlled
Spanish Territory claimed
British
French
Dutch
Danish & Swedish
Independent
United States
UNITED STATES
CONFEDERATION OF COLUMBIA
1819 1830
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53



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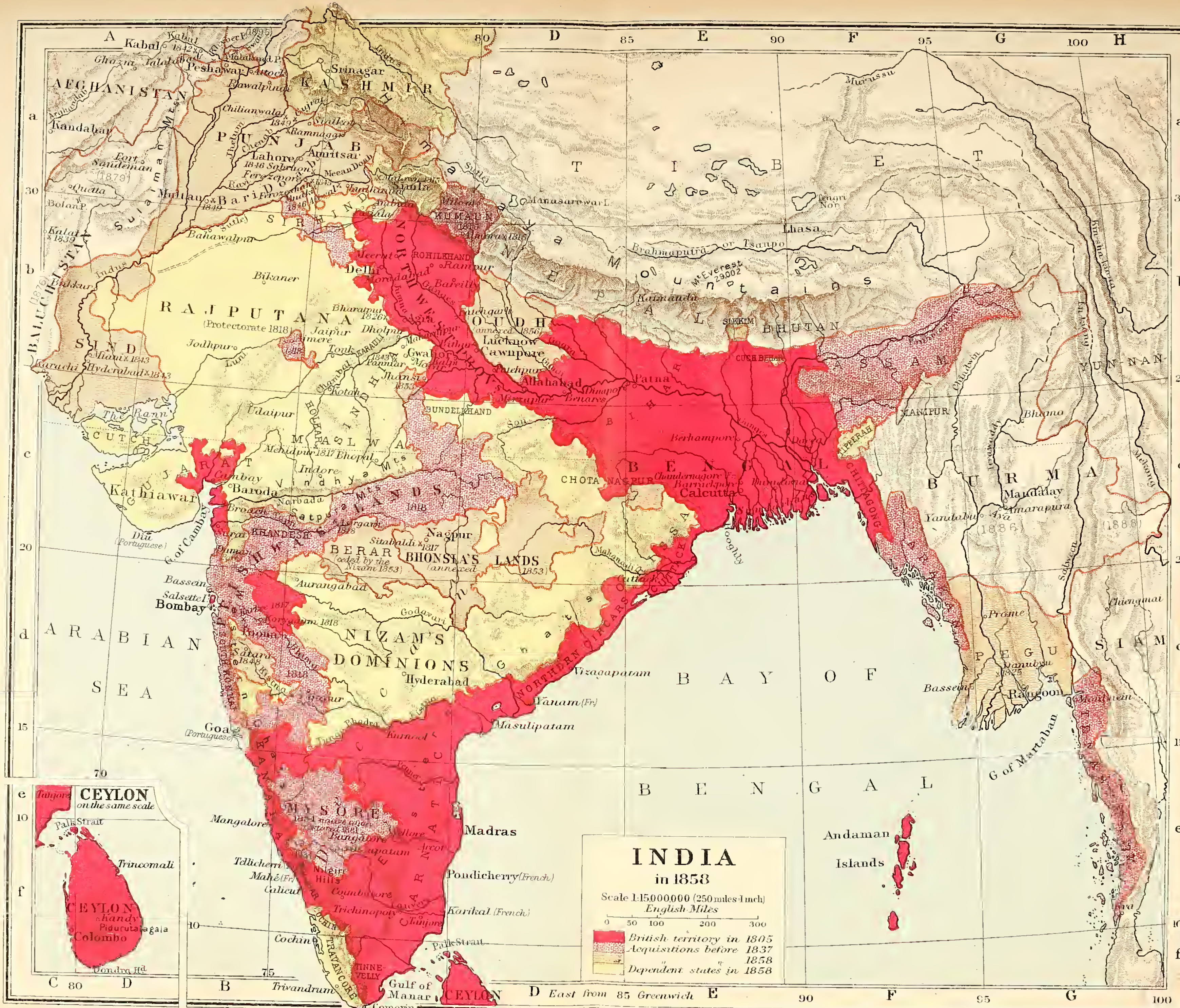

ASIA UNDER THE MONGOLS
(WESTERN SHEET)
showing the
MEDIÆVAL HIGHWAYS OF COMMERCE
Scale 1:30000000 (480 miles = 1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Mongol Power at its widest extent (13th & 14th Centuries)
Boundaries of chief Mongol States in the 14th Century
Empire of Timur or Tamurlane (End of 14th & early 15th C.)
Principal Overland Trade Routes in the Middle Ages
Marco Polo's Routes
Highlands over 3000 Ft
Uplands from 1200-3000 „
Lowlands „ 600-1200 „
0-600 „
Land below Sea level
G East from 80 Greenwich H
KHANATE OF SIBERIA
GOLDEN HORDE
CASPIAN SEA
BLACK SEA
Constantinople
EMPIRE
ARABIA
Great Sandy Desert
PERSIAN GULF
RED SEA
ARABIAN SEA
BAY OF BENGAL
INDIAN OCEAN
TIBET
Kwen Lun
Himalaya
Takla Makan Desert
Lake Aral
Balkash
Samarkand
Bokhara
Baghdad
Damascus
Jerusalem
Mekka
Medina
Delhi
Laccadive Is
Maldive Is
CEYLON (SEILAN)
Sokotra
Aden
YEMEN
HADRAMAUT
OMAN
a. INDIA
at the beginning of the
XVII CENTURY
(on same scale as general map)
RAJPUTANA
MALWA
ORISSA
GONDWANA
BERAR
AHMADNAGAR
BIJAPUR
GOLCONDA
Coromandel Coast
Golconda Coast
CEYLON
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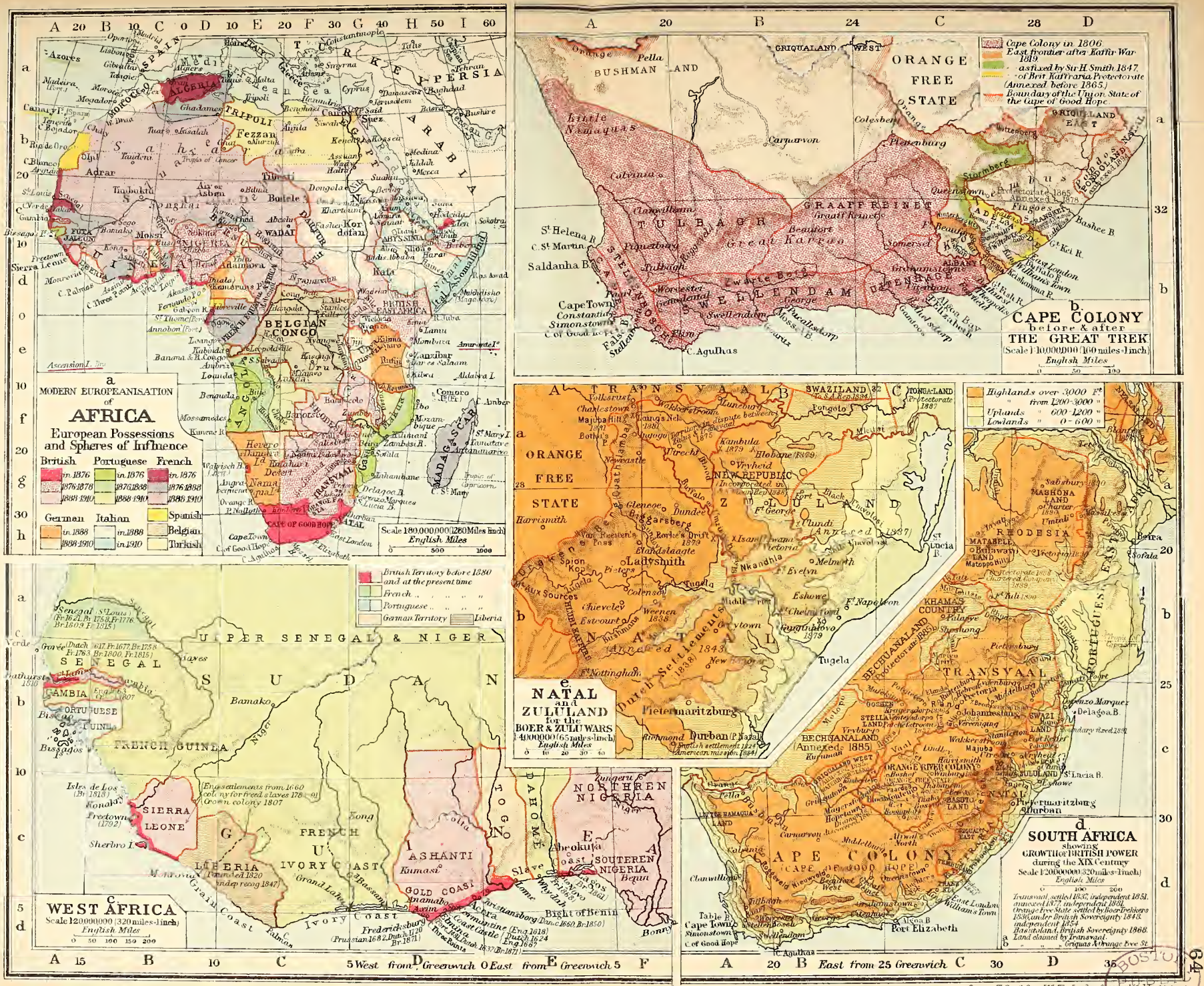


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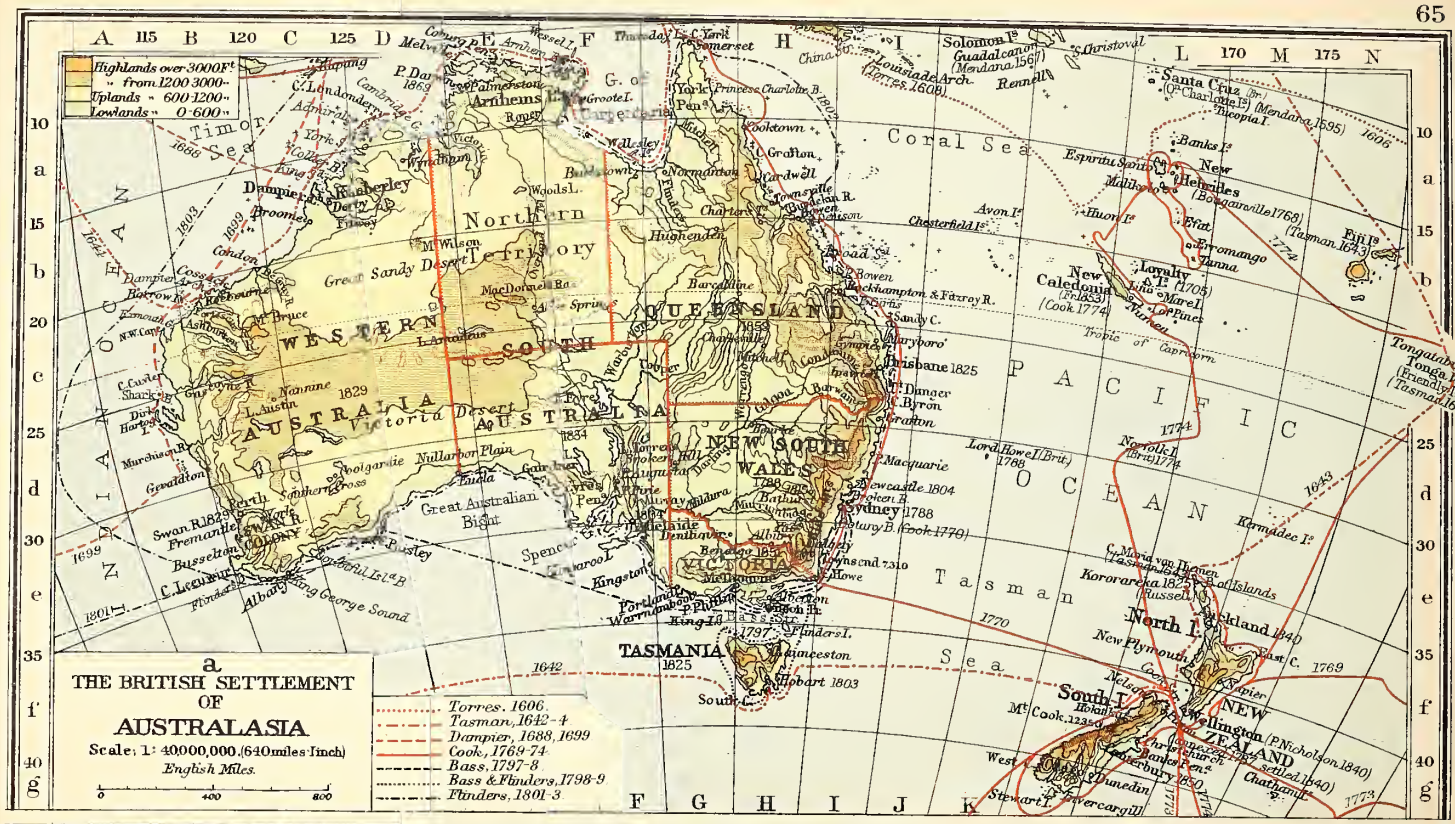
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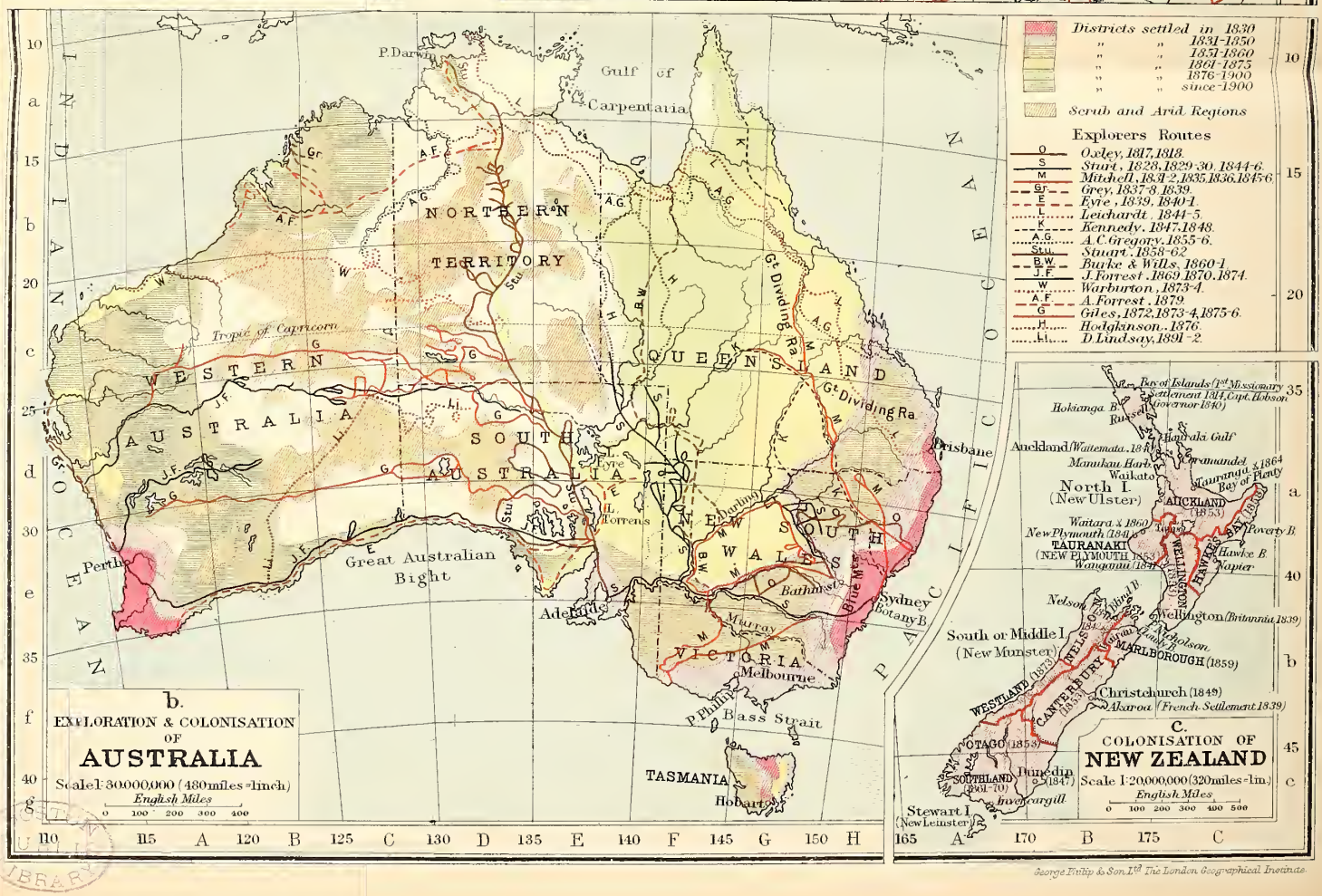

THE EUROPEAN POWERS IN ASIA
DURING THE XIXTH CENTURY
Scale 1: 40,000,000 (640 miles=1 inch)
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Russian Empire in 1689 (The Accession of Peter the Great)
Russian Acquisitions 1690-1815
1816-1854
1855-1876
1877-1886
1887-1895
Present Boundary of the Russian Empire
British Dependent States in India
British Territory in 1805
Acquisitions 1806-1911
French Territory
United States
Railways open
constructing
Treaty Ports thrown open in 1842 thus ... Canton
Treaty Ports thrown open in 1858 thus ... Swatow
UNITED KINGDOM
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
RUSSIA
GERMANY
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
TURKEY
PERSIA
AFGHANISTAN
BALUCHISTAN
CHINESE EMPIRE
CHINESE TURKESTAN
MONGOLIA
COREA
JAPAN
BERING SEA
ARCTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
SOUTH CHINA SEA
ARABIAN SEA
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
ARAL SEA
Spitzbergen
Nova Zemlya
Kara Sea
Wrangel I.
Kamtchatka
Okhotsk
Saghalin
Kurile Is.
Philippine Is.
Luzon
Formosa
Hainan
Manchuria
Siberia
Tibet
Himalaya Mts.
Hindu Kush
Caucasus
Ural Mts.
Altai Mts.
Tian Shan
Kuen Lun
Gobi or Shamo
Constantinople
St. Petersburg
Moscow
Archangel
Odessa
Tiflis
Erivan
Teheran
Meshed
Herat
Kabul
Kandahar
Quetta
Karachi
Bombay
Delhi
Lahore
Calcutta
Lucknow
Patna
Benares
Rangoon
Mandalay
Bangkok
Hanoi
Saigon
Singapore
Aden
Muscat
Bushire
Bagdad
Damascus
Jerusalem
Mecca
Medina
Riyadh
Hail
Kuwait
Basra
Suez
Port Said
Alexandria
Cairo
Khartoum
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
Gibraltar
Malta
Cyprus
Crete
Rhodes
Smyrna
Trebizond
Erzerum
Tabriz
Kashgar
Yarkand
Khotan
Turfan
Hami
Urumchi
Barkul
Karashar
Kucha
Aksu
Lob Nor
Koko Nor
Tangut
Sampo
Lhasa
Shigatse
Gartok
Darjeeling
Sikkim
Bhutan
Assam
Burma
Siam
Annam
Tonking
Cochin China
Canton
Hongkong
Macao
Amoy
Foochow
Ningpo
Shanghai
Nanking
Hankow
Chinkiang
Tientsin
Peking
Newchwang
Port Arthur
Vladivostock
Nagasaki
Yokohama
Tokio
Osaka
Kobe
Hakodate
Shimonoseki
Irkutsk
Yakutsk
Verkhoyansk
Okhotsk
Kamchatka
Petropaulovsk
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